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Continuing The Historical Outlook

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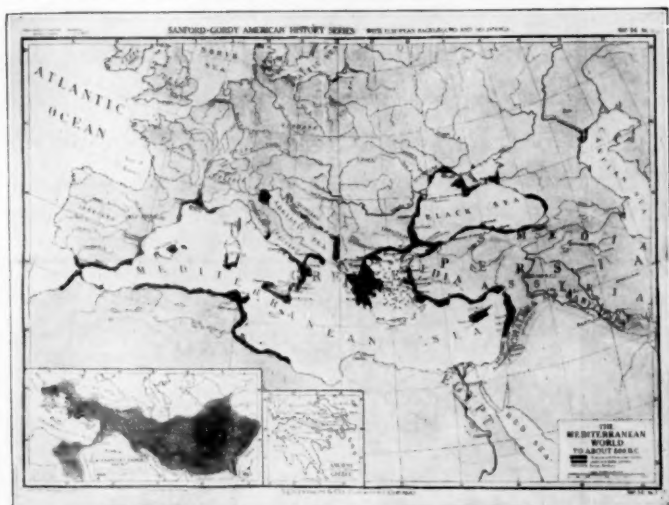
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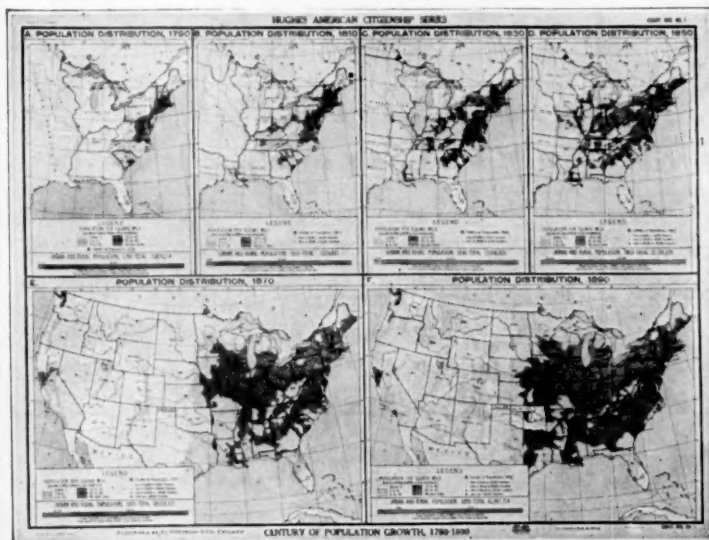
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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

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Why a "Liberal-Democratic" State?

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Ever since the World War Americans have been cautioning one another to be on guard against again becoming victims of propaganda. We have been assuring ourselves that when another controversy arose we would not blindly and innocently be herded into a "yes man" group, complacently approving any attractively presented proposal. Consequently, our wits are oversharpened to prevent a blind endorsement of any foreign power in its relations with neighboring states.

Is such awareness a guarantee that we shall not succumb to propaganda? The power and effectiveness of propaganda is dependent upon its adroitness. Hence, it should be unrecognizable. If it is really good it will appear in a somewhat different form and manner than before, otherwise it may be a boomerang. Only as propaganda obtains an innocent entering wedge into a people's thinking and expands in an inoffensive manner can it be effective. Consequently, we should expect it to be dressed in such garb as to make it difficult of recognition.

There is increasing evidence that we are being subjected to the most vicious and misleading propaganda this country has ever experienced. Recent years—especially since the low point of the depression—have witnessed an increasing agitation in favor of the establishment of a "liberal-democratic" state and opposed to the fascist movement. Fascism is constantly held before us as the alternative choice to "liberal democracy." It is pictured as the typification of arch-capitalism, the force which subjects the whole social and economic life to the whims and desires of the ultra-exploiting capitalists. We have numerous or-

ganizations formed to foster "liberalism" and combat fascism. The Civil Liberties Union and the League Against War and Fascism are typical representatives of such groups. A number of youth movements engineered by maladjusted adults, especially among a few religious groups, are fostered for the same purpose.

The term liberal is a happy one for the propagandist. It suggests freshness of view; freedom from the old and outworn "sacred cows" of vested interest groups; liberal as opposed to narrow, unprogressive and non-social attitudes. What youth wouldn't choose to be liberal? Likewise with the term democracy. Americans are prone to consider our country as the birthplace and home of true democracy. Democracy is the keystone of American political philosophy. We are inevitably committed to its support.

Consequently, the appeal to support the move for a "liberal-democratic" state is a challenge to both the adults and the youth of America. The only alternative suggested is subjection by a fascist state. This appeal has been so adroitly launched and propagandized, even by prominent educational publicists, that it appears to be receiving widespread approval, especially among many teachers. The agitation is so strong that some of our most sincere and wide-awake social science teachers are impressed with the necessity of fostering this movement.

The writer cannot follow such philosophy. He believes we are being misinformed. People are seldom in a position where they have to choose between the extremes of any proposition. They certainly should

guard against being jockeyed into a position where such a decision is necessary. Invariably, the truth lies somewhere between the extremes of any issue. But, more important, he is convinced that after all has been said and done there exists little fundamental difference between the practical effects of the operation of the so-called "liberal democracies" and fascism. Fascism is conveniently used as a bogey to frighten us into endorsing an equally undesirable order.

While such a position may be criticized by persons whose attention is too closely centered on the theory supporting their particular brand of leftism, it should be remembered that we are most interested in the practical results of these proposed systems. No doubt minor differences exist. The philosophy and operation of any program may be sharply conditioned by the dominating head. It is generally recognized that fascism is Mussolini. Nazism is inseparable from Hitler; and the state socialism of Russia under Stalin might have been a pure communistic state had Trotsky succeeded Lenin. Likewise, in the United States, the American Socialist Party under Norman Thomas, plus a generous influx of former communists, is much different than what it would have been had the social democrats continued to dominate the party council as they did before the Detroit Conference of 1934. However, our purpose is to obtain an accurate understanding of the significant characteristics of socialism, communism, and fascism in an effort to determine their relative effects upon the liberties and welfare of the people. In attempting such an evaluation we shall confine our consideration to characteristics that are representative of significant elements of the groups under consideration.

There are many different schools of socialists who hold various opinions pertaining to identical phases of their program. The Utopian, Scientific, Fabian, and Christian Socialists are each characterized by certain theories and techniques which distinguish them from the others. Even members of the same school are, frequently, widely apart in their attitude toward specific controversial questions. Such situations are commonly found in all organizations. We classify the members of a certain group (such as Republicans) together, because of major similarities, and in spite of minor differences. This is true of the different schools of socialism. It is, as we shall see, largely true of all radical propagandists.

Socialism and communism are frequently referred to as being two distinct theories for social and economic organization. Many persons approve of socialism but consider communism patently undesirable. Such a distinction is neither in accordance with historical development nor current practice of devotees of those groups. The concept of communism is as old as civilization itself. However, while Plato gave it

conditional endorsement for government officials its present philosophy and significance is a product of the last hundred years. The modern idea developed among the radical revolutionary groups in Paris during the 1830's. The term, communism, came into use about 1840, but the first significant statement of purpose and technique did not appear until 1847, when Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels collaborated in the issuance of the now celebrated *Communist Manifesto*. It is upon this document that modern communism is based. The similarity between socialism and communism is better understood when it is realized that the *Communist Manifesto* is one of the first pronouncements of Marx in his development of a program of scientific socialism. Because of this and later writings, Marx is recognized by both socialists and communists as the founder of their philosophy. Of course, Marx made no attempt to set up two theories of action. His *Communist Manifesto* was devoted to the promulgation of the "correct" social and economic philosophy. He characterized this philosophy as "scientific socialism" to distinguish it from the illogical and impractical programs of the Utopians. His monumental work, *Das Kapital*, to which he devoted the major part of his life, is in reality little more than an effort to present justification for the position he had taken earlier in publishing the *Communist Manifesto*. In no instance do we find Marx differentiating between the principles of the latter and the program of scientific socialists. He considered them one and the same thing.

The placing of communism in a category of propaganda different from socialism is the work of later groups. The significant distinctions commonly made between the two schools is concerned with two points. First, they differ in their attitude toward private property. While socialism usually stands for the elimination of private property rights in productive factors, communism favors the elimination of private property in consumers' goods. A second distinction is in the technique, advocated by the different groups, to be employed in the attainment of their goal. Socialists are reputed to be democratic groups who seek the attainment of their ends through constitutional means. In fact, they frequently refer to their government as the "liberal-democratic state." The term, communist, on the other hand, has been applied to that more radical and revolutionary school which claims revolution and the dictatorship of the proletariat, the use of force, as a technique for accomplishing the desired goal.

The above differences may be largely differences of degree, yet they would seem to be significant if they constitute a real and rigid line of demarcation between the two bodies. A study of socialistic philosophy indicates considerable variation from this rigid differentiation. An examination of actual practice

does not support these theoretical distinctions. Soviet Russia is thought of as the great "communistic experiment," yet Russian communism is not only seeking not to eliminate all private property rights in consumers' goods, but is still tolerating, and in some instances (such as ownership of livestock) encouraging, private property in production goods. Thus, it is practically impossible to distinguish between the actual practice of the communists and the theories promulgated by most of the other socialist schools when it comes to the status of property. In the matter of remuneration of workers, the Russian communists, after trying a totally different basis with disastrous results, have subscribed to, and now practice the much condemned capitalistic method of paying wages according to the productivity of the workers.

In the remainder of this discussion we shall use the term "communism" in the popular American sense as represented by the Russian experiment. Even so, it is necessary to remember that Russians consider their program socialistic. This is clearly indicated by the call issued by *Pravda*, the official Communist Party newspaper, for the 1937 May Day demonstration. In this call it said: "Only revolutionary overthrow of capitalism, with its replacement by socialism will end exploitation."

The second major difference said to distinguished communists from socialists—that of using force rather than constitutional means to secure their ascendancy into power—should be a real differentiation. However, the extent to which this separates the two groups is quite another matter. Certainly, as we have seen, the scientific socialists under Marx made no such distinction. They emphasized the inevitability and significance of the class struggle. In their view, the growing proletariat could expect to come into actual power only by crushing the class that held them in bound subjection. Revolution was inevitable. It is true that the Fabian Socialists, the English intellectuals, since the time of their origin, have opposed this ruthless method and have stood for the attainment of socialism through democratic methods. Until recent years this has been the position of a relatively large section of the socialists in America, although the Marxian philosophy has dominated American socialism, and this has always advocated force. While the attainment of socialism through democratic means has been the plan advocated by a large number of socialist leaders, it now seems that a substantial portion of such leaders have taken this position because they felt it to be the expedient thing to do. That they believe in expediency is indicated by Paul Blanchard, for years a leading socialist agitator, when in a symposium on socialism, he said:

What method should the class struggle follow in overthrowing capitalism? As socialists, should we advocate a frontal attack on capitalism with

any weapons at our command and end up with the dictatorship of the proletariat, or should we content ourselves with the weapons of democratic change? . . . I will attempt only a sentence or two in trying to answer it.

If I were a general in a war, I would use any weapons available to kill and mangle my enemies provided the use of these weapons did not act as a boomerang against me. . . . The method which the American class struggle should adopt is the method best suited to meet the special difficulties with which we are faced.¹

With such sentiment dominating American socialist leadership it is difficult to feel that the peaceful, democratic pursuit of a socialistic state is more than an expedient gesture because they feel that an American organization could not expect to win popular support by openly advocating revolution. Even so, the revolutionary group of American socialists has maintained its position and influence. That its position has recently developed into the dominating policy of the American Socialist Party is indicated by the following declaration adopted by the Socialist Party at its National Convention at Detroit in 1934:

Only those who labor with hand and brain in their concerted might can overthrow this monstrous system (capitalism). . . . They will unitedly seek to develop trustworthy working class instruments for peaceable settlement of international disputes. . . . Socialists will loyally support in the tragic event of war any of their comrades who, for anti-war activities refuse to perform war service, come into conflict with public opinion or the law. . . . They will meet wars . . . by mass war resistance, organized so far as practicable in a general strike of labor unions and professional groups in a united effort to make the waging of war a practical impossibility and to convert the capitalist war crisis into a victory for Socialism. . . . Capitalism is doomed: if it can be superseded by a majority vote the Socialist Party will rejoice. . . . If the capitalist system should collapse in a general chaos and confusion, which cannot permit orderly procedure, the Socialist Party, whether or not in such a case it is a majority, will not shrink from the responsibility of organizing and maintaining a government rule.²

This excerpt from the Declaration of Principles indicates that the American Socialist Party has, with respect to war, adopted essentially the communist position. Not only does it oppose war, but it will use war as a means of injecting socialists into power. "Capitalism is doomed: if it can be superseded by a majority vote, the Socialist Party will rejoice." But suppose it is not "superseded by a majority vote,"

what then? According to this, since capitalism is doomed it must be a weak and ineffective system, and if so, then chaos would seem to be inevitable. In fact, chaos already exists, in all probability, otherwise we could hardly be positive that the system is doomed. If chaos exists then the position of the Socialist Party is simplified. Regardless of whether socialists are a majority or not they will assume the responsibility of organizing and maintaining a government. This is just another way of saying that if the people do not vote the socialists into power they will assume power and maintain it when they consider conditions warrant: a government through the "dictatorship of the proletariat."

Yes, one says, but this action is to be taken only when chaos appears. True, but when does chaos appear? Frequently it depends on what you are looking for as to what you see. The difficulty of objectively determining when a state of chaos exists facilitates the assumption of the existence of such a state (if that is what one is looking for) when only a minor maladjustment appears. Eventually and finally, the determination of such a state would rest, so far as the Socialist Party is concerned, with the governing socialist body. The degree of radicalism permeating the controlling body of that party would be the most important factor in determining whether any specific situation was chaotic. In other words, such a statement of principles does provide a foundation to support revolution and the use of force in establishing the dictatorship of the proletariat as advocated and supported by all communists. Certainly the socialists and communists of America have such minor differences that a distinction is of little value.

That this move of socialism to the left was recognized at the time is indicated by the attitude of Louis Waldman, who was then the directing head of the Socialist Party of New York. Waldman, in the course of a strenuous attempt to prevent the adoption of the declaration said: "It is inconceivable to me as a Social Democrat that this declaration should pass. It is . . . communistic doctrine."

That this socialist Declaration of Principles at the Detroit convention is recognized by the radicals, themselves, as definitely eliminating differences between the American Socialist Party and American communists is indicated by the actions resulting therefrom. The National Convention of the Socialist Party at Cleveland in 1936 endorsed the Detroit Declaration and was organized and controlled by the radical wing of the party. This was true to such an extent that Waldman and a few other less radical members were ignored and they later withdrew their support from the movement.

However, this loss of a few rightists was more than offset by the influx of a still more radical group. Soon after the Cleveland Convention the National Com-

mittee of the Workers Party of the United States issued a statement in which they voluntarily dissolved their party (a communistic organization supporting the Marxian revolutionary philosophy of Lenin and Trotsky) and cast their lot with the Socialist Party. The reasons for this voluntary dissolution of their organization are best given in their own words, as published in the *New Militant*:

The Socialist Party today is no longer what it was under the domination of the Old Guard. Into its ranks have entered a new generation of class-conscious militants, inspired by the spirit of the class struggle, who want to make the party a *party of revolutionary Marxism*. The National Committee herewith decides to dissolve the Workers Party as a separate organization and calls upon all its members to enter the ranks of the Socialist Party of America. *It appeals to all revolutionary workers to follow this example.*³

With this merging of the Socialist Party and the Lenin-Trotsky communists into a single organization the terms communism and socialism appear to be synonymous so far as present radical movements in America are concerned. Marxian revolutionary philosophy again openly prevails. This is not to infer that some socialists may not be entirely opposed to the exercise of force in accomplishing their proposed change. Rather, it is to make clear that they appear to be in the minority, and that the organized movement is shifting to a more radical position.

Undoubtedly there is considerable socialistic sentiment among a substantial sector of Americans who believe in the class struggle and various other socialistic philosophies but who draw the line at using force for the accomplishment of such an end. The extent to which leaders of such a movement abhor force is only a question of degree and may never be ascertainable until a concrete situation arises. As Professor Tugwell said: "No one can pretend to know how the release of this pressure [release from capitalism] is likely to come. Perhaps our statesmen will give way or be more or less gently removed." While violence is decried, yet the removal of our statesmen "more or less gently" is a policy that may be subscribed to by almost any of the red groups. Furthermore, the very nature of the transformation into a radical order is likely to favor the ascendancy of the extreme radical group. It occurred in Russia, witness Kerensky; it occurred in Spain, witness the change from socialist to communist leadership in the early stages of the civil war. If a group starts on a revolutionary program, even though it is, originally, of a mild nature, when the accomplishment of the milder radical modifications fail to produce the results anticipated, the insufficiency of the program is demonstrated. It is then that the more radical group, those who still have

a positive proposal, a more advanced step, to offer for the solution of the situation, are able to step into the breach and by fair or foul means institute their program. If a mild revolutionary program has not achieved the anticipated results, perhaps the extreme proposal, not yet tried, will achieve the desired ends. At least, it is a fine setting for "ultra radical" propaganda. Therefore, economic revolutions are likely to precede from the less to the more radical positions. Hence, one would expect that such a movement might go further than any of the original instigators had any intention or desire for it to go.

If socialism and communism are so similar, what, then, may be said of fascism? Surely fascism is at the opposite pole. It is not unusual to hear fascism described as a movement generated by the arch-conservative capitalist group to insure control of the government by them, or, at least, to forestall the ascendancy of the socialists into power. Undoubtedly, evidence can be discovered to lend color to such a statement. However, we must be more concerned with the general nature and tendency of fascism rather than with less essential differences that may seem significant.

Fascism is inextricably bound up with Mussolini. One might even put it stronger and say that Mussolini is fascism. Certainly a little knowledge of the pre-fascist Mussolini appears to add to the understanding of some of the positions taken by the fascist dictator. In fact, it is only as one obtains some knowledge of the early training and experiences of Mussolini that he can gain an intelligent understanding of the medley of fascist governmental procedure.

Mussolini's family was of the upper lower class. His father followed the trade of blacksmith, but for avocation was an international socialist who spent some time in prison for his activities. Mussolini was able to get an education and become a teacher. However, he quickly developed a major interest in spreading socialistic propaganda. Because of such activities he was expelled from Switzerland, where he had gone to study. In 1908 Italy imprisoned him for the same reason. We next find him as a radical journalist in the Tyrol; this time it was the Austrian government that expelled him. His strenuous opposition to the imperialistic war in Tripoli won him another prison term. In 1912 we find him as editor of the *Avanti*, the official organ of the radical socialists of Italy. He was prominent in the communistic disturbances of June, 1914. All-in-all, the pre-war Mussolini was a typical young socialist "soap-box" agitator. His interests were wholly with the proletariat and his patriotism was that of the international socialist. He came in contact with the philosophy and technique of the radical syndicalists of the pre-war period and at the outbreak of the war was shifting, rather rapidly, from Marxian socialism to the syndicalism of the French school.

In the early stages of the World War Mussolini took a firm stand in opposition to the Triple Alliance and in favor of strict neutrality. He objected to Italy becoming involved in the "bourgeois war." Shortly afterwards, however, he reversed his position and supported the entrance of Italy on the side of the allies. For this he was expelled from the Socialist Party in November, 1914. However, this action of his fellow socialists was not to change his attitude toward public questions. "Do not imagine," he said, "that by tearing up my membership card in the Socialist Party you can forbid my socialist faith or prevent me from continuing to work for the cause of socialism and of the revolution." Such is the early record of the man responsible for fascism. Would one expect such a person to have a philosophy of economic relations diametrically opposed to socialism? An examination of his post-war program should provide an answer.

The term *fascio*, as applied to semi-political groupings in Italy, had existed long before the close of the World War. The word means group, or band, or squad. However, fascism, as it is known today, is a post-war phenomenon. The earliest post-war fasci were groups of Italian industrial and agricultural workers who used strong arm methods to secure results from their employers. Industrialists who refused to raise wages found their factories taken over by groups of radical workers; land owners were deprived of their property; and non-union workers were sometimes killed. The situation rapidly became serious. The government could not, and did not, meet the situation. Chaos followed. This led to the formation of fasci of ex-service men and of the middle class whose chief purpose was protection from the radical groups.

Other fasci were organized for various purposes. It was during this confused situation, in March 1919, that Mussolini formed the Milan fascio. This was an unimportant group with a membership of only fifty. The members had but one thing in common: like Mussolini they were radicals who had been expelled from their parties. They had no formal principles, but Mussolini declared himself in favor of "political democracy and economic democracy." Certain immediate aims were listed, among which were: the establishment of economic councils with legislative powers; management of industries by workers' councils; and the confiscation of Church property. Such objectives indicate that this fascio was "left" in thought rather than "right." Somewhat later Mussolini applied for reinstatement in the Socialist Party but his request was refused, an action which many socialists were soon to regret.

During the industrial disturbances of this early post-war period, Mussolini was invariably found supporting the proletariat. In the Italian mass steel strike

of 1920 he supported the strikers. During the agrarian revolution he said: "The Fascist Central Committee proclaims its absolute solidarity with the masses"; and in his radical paper, *Popolo d' Italia*, he urged the overthrow of the government. At no time during this period was he able to formulate a positive and acceptable program, the only gain made was in the organization of other centers, a nucleus for his national organization.

As time passed the anemic Italian government, with its inability to preserve order and end chaos resulting from the continued industrial disturbances, gave Mussolini his chance. The lethargy of the government divorced the army as well as the middle and upper classes from its support. Mussolini had, in the meantime, committed himself to a nationalistic program, a return to the grandeur of the days of Roman domination. He had also given indication of desiring a stronger monarchy. Only in these respects was he less objectionable than other radical leaders. He promised action. He was the only figure on the horizon that promised relief from the demoralizing, chaotic post-war conditions. The fascists' march on Rome (October, 1922) is said, by some, to have been encouraged by the conservative elements; in any case the fascists met no resistance, and Mussolini soon found himself ruler of Italy.

What, then, can be said of the nature of fascism since it has come into power? Is it "intensely capitalistic" as is charged by socialist writers? Or, does it follow much of the radical philosophy of Mussolini's early commitments? A positive and unequivocal answer is rendered more difficult by the generally recognized fact that the movement was originally largely opportunistic. There appears to have been no early consistent, common purpose running through the various fascist stages unless, perhaps, it was that of political self-preservation. However, the one and one-half decades of its existence have seen sufficient positions taken and modifications made that a reasonably accurate evaluation of its general character should be possible.

First, is it "intensely capitalistic?" The most essential characteristics of capitalism are private property and free enterprise. In their pure form these relationships enable the owner of property to use it for whatever purpose he wishes and to retain the earnings from such property for his own private use. Outside of minor governmentally imposed restrictions a person is free to "get and to hold" as much as he can.

Whatever may be said about the original attitude of the Italian capitalists toward Mussolini's seizure of their government there is a paucity of evidence to indicate that he has exercised himself to maintain their interests. It is true that he early relieved (banking) debtors of their burden, but in the process he assumed extensive powers in the supervision of their

property and activities. Such is a socialistic rather than capitalistic procedure. He guaranteed certain basic industries a specific rate of return—but confiscated all in excess of that moment. No law was made prohibiting Italians from exporting their gold to a foreign country for investment or safekeeping. This freedom would be considered highly characteristic of a capitalistic economy if the police had not been used to intimidate effectively any person that attempted to exercise such a right. As fascism's tenure in office lengthened, its departure from capitalism became more pronounced. In 1933, after one of the major Italian banking trusts had taken over a number of distressed factories and businesses, and was on the verge of adding to this number, Mussolini asked for a report covering the acquired units. Upon receiving the report he informed the trust that, as Minister of Corporations, he would henceforth take over the direction of these institutions. He has, also, established a central planning committee with broad powers for the direction and control of the activities of the Italian business man. Those who still think of Mussolini as the representative of arch-capitalism need but to recall his capital tax of ten per cent levied against Italian capital last November. Such confiscation of capital is inseparable from extreme radicalism.

One of the most significant events for indicating the direction and nature of Mussolini's economic and political philosophy is the creation of his "Corporate State." This event reflects back to his pre-war activities in the syndicalist groups. Here he imbibed and spread the syndicalist doctrine that the ownership of the means of production should be vested in the state; that the economic framework of society is more important than the political. The syndicalist advocates that, instead of geographical representation in government, society should be organized into a federation of industrial units, with each unit a union of all the workers in an industry. Representatives of these industrial unions would meet and make the laws under which a country is governed.

This syndicalist program was advocated in the United States by the Industrial Workers of the World (I.W.W.) an ultra-radical off-shoot from the socialists. Their strong syndicalist doctrine is directly related to the Italian "Corporate State" through Edmundo Rossoni. In the immediate pre-war period Rossoni was in New York as editor of the largest Italian paper published in America, *Il Proletario*. He was an apt student of the I.W.W., and a strong factor in spreading their teaching among the Italian workers in America. His activities were continued into the World War period. Dissatisfied with the lack of progress his efforts were making, he returned to Italy and became active in attempting to enlist the disorganized post-war Italy in the I.W.W. brand of

syndicalism. It is but natural that Mussolini, with his pre-war record of activity in the spread of syndicalism, should feel kindly toward this program of Rossoni's. In any case we find Rossoni supporting Mussolini some time before the advent of actual dictatorship.

The significant contribution of fascism to political and economic organization is the "Corporate State." The central idea of this organization was to provide for state supervision and control of all economic activity. In its final result it was quite like the bolshevik attainment, as, indeed, it should be since both (bolshevism and I.W.W.-ism) were off-shoots of radical socialists. But, first, let us see the relation of the "Corporate State" to the I.W.W. activity.

In 1905 Thomas J. Haggerty drew up an American labor union chart which became widely known as the industrial union "wheel." This chart suggested a plan for a complete system for the organization of American labor. In 1911 William B. Trautman, through the Industrial Workers of the World, published a pamphlet called "One Big Union." This pamphlet further developed the "wheel" idea previously set forth by Haggerty. The plan outlined an organization for the control of the economic life of America.

It was about this time that Rossoni was introduced to the philosophy of the I.W.W. group. Naturally, he became acquainted with this suggestion for the organization of labor and government. The I.W.W. plan proposed to organize the workers into six groups according to their occupation: agriculture, mining, transportation, manufacture, construction, and public service. Mussolini's "Corporate State" also has six general federations, but he does modify the American plan to the extent that each of the six branches shall have representatives of employers and also of the labor syndicates separately organized. To these twelve he adds a thirteenth to provide for representation of those occupations not otherwise included. Except for these minor changes it is a verbatim copy of Trautman's "One Big Union."

Mussolini's syndicalist parliament is, therefore, novel in political and economic practice. It provides for no geographical representation. It is Marxian in that the entire emphasis is upon the economic. It does not engage in political debates, and, quite naturally, its power and influence is restricted. A decree of July 3, 1926, created a Minister of Corporations (trade unions) who has general oversight of syndicates with power to void any of their decisions. The decree also provided that only approved laborers might join syndicates, but all workers must contribute to the support of such organizations.

Thus, while the Italian corporations theoretically give the workers a substantial voice in affairs, we hear the same claims made for the workers' soviets in

Russia. A further similarity suggested by the practical operation of these plans is that neither is permitted to exercise real power or initiate and establish policies.

Recital of fascist activities could be much enlarged. Instances could be cited which might appear in conflict with the trend emphasized herein. However, it would seem that such few capitalistic practices as have been engaged in occurred during the earlier stage of Italian fascism, a period in which Mussolini was silently but effectively consolidating his position. As he becomes secure, or perhaps, to more firmly insure his position, the philosophy and activities of his youth appear to be reflected with increasing intensity in fascist innovations. The only apparent exception to this is his chauvinistic nationalism. In this he apparently departs widely from the philosophy of the other radical socialist groups. To what extent this is really true is uncertain, because most of those have been exclusively theoretical groups. Theoretically, they all preach internationalism, none more so than the Russian bolshevik. Yet, the Red international is entirely Russian in thought; many of the milder socialist groups severed their connection with it because they were forced to believe, or at least to do, exactly as the Moscow group decreed. In some respects the Russians now appear to be more nationalistic and patriotic than they were under the Czars. Their internationalism has many of the same marks church federation formerly had in the smaller American towns. Each of the Methodist, Presbyterians, Baptists, Congregationalists and other churches was anxious to have the churches unite with them and form a single church of which it should be the head. It is by no means sure that Mussolini's attitude toward Ethiopia is fundamentally different from Russia's attitude towards certain parts of China, when one considers the latter's less urgent need. In any case, capitalism appears to be in about as bad a condition in Italy as it is in Russia. In Italy its decomposition may have been somewhat less rapid, but just as sure, and in the end possibly more complete.

As one seeks a comprehensive understanding of the basic ideas underlying the major radical philosophies, it would seem that he should remember that all are based on Marxism. Since the American Socialist Party has subscribed (in Detroit, 1934) to the possible use of force in obtaining its end, this position is also common to all.

Certainly, there are some differences in the attitudes, pronouncements, techniques, and positions taken by leaders of various radical groups. Socialists and communists give a great deal of lip service to the idea of a "democratic state." The fascist openly flaunts the idea of democracy. He supports dictatorship both in theory and practice. While Mussolini has valued life lightly and Hitler's purge of the summer of 1934 was revolting, such is in keeping with their

published philosophy. They may be depreciated, but they are consistent. The Russians (as exemplifying the socialist-communist philosophy) speak and publish (to the world at least) their faith in democracy, and then execute by wholesale shootings, persons who question the things they are doing or the policy they follow. It is difficult for an American to understand how and why it is better to be shot by a Stalin democrat because he expressed his thoughts than to be executed by a non-democratic Hitlerite for a similar "offense." It is difficult to understand why it is more democratic to be in Russia and to be ruled by the Communist Party with its highly restricted membership, opposition to which is not permitted, than to be in Italy or Germany where only one political party is permitted to exist. As yet, the fascist has to prove that he is more of a dictator than the others are in practice.

Such differences as exist are not of the kind that would materially affect the liberties and rights of the common man subjected to their operation. By this we mean that while differences may exist the final effect of any of these "left" proposals upon the political and economic life of a democratic people are fundamentally similar.

Socialists, communists and fascists all agree in advocating a totalitarian state, a state which is free to do any and everything that the ruling group might desire. The individual is viewed only from the standpoint of the group. He is considered to exist for the promotion of the interest of the state. The state is competent to say not only what is good for the individual but what he must do. The individual is the servant of the state. Such a philosophy is necessary for a grasping, dictatorial group, which is sure it "knows what the people should want" in order to justify the seizure of political power and thereby the right to determine what everyone shall do. Our "American System," on the other hand, proceeds on the theory that the individual is the significant factor. The state is an artificial organization that exists for the service of the individual and not vice versa. Fundamentally, our interests start with the individual, and we feel that as the conditions of individuals improve, society likewise progresses. Radicals look through the other end of the telescope.

Naturally, such groups are alike in assuming that the individual has no rights which the state must respect. Even the fundamental rights of freedom of worship, free speech and free press are brazenly denied when the welfare of the ruling hierarchy appears to be advanced by such denial. This is as true in Russia and Germany as it is in Italy. Even mildly socialistic France has given indications of a willingness to abrogate the individual's freedom. On the other hand, the "American System" assumes that there are certain fundamental and basic human rights to

which an individual, by virtue of the fact that he is a human being, is entitled. Our federal Constitution was adopted only with the understanding that such basic and inalienable rights should be protected. The Bill of Rights is material proof of this fundamental belief.

The close similarities of the radical philosophies and their contrast with the "American System" are equally apparent from the economic viewpoint, and since they are being put forth by their respective adherents as desirable substitutes for our economic order this phase of their philosophies deserves consideration. Their belief in the totalitarian state is inevitably reflected in their economic organization. Such a philosophy makes a "planned economy" an integral part of its program and only a totalitarian state philosophy can intelligently and consistently support a planned economy program.

The "American System" is based upon the capitalistic method of production. Capitalism is marked by several distinct characteristics that set it completely apart from these new proposals. Basic to this system is the concept of private property and the private ownership of the means of production. Factories, farms, stores and mines are owned by the people in their capacity of private citizens. And, of equal significance, capitalism presupposes freedom of enterprise, which stated somewhat differently means that the individual may use his private property and personal capacities for such purposes and in such a manner as he may desire, within certain broad limits established by law. It is assumed and permitted that he shall use his property in such a manner as will promote his own interests. In other words, one of the major generating forces under our economic order is the self-interest of the individual. While such self-interest may be restricted within limits that will preclude the development of gross unsocial conditions, it is encouraged and recognized as an indispensable generating and guiding force in our economy.

Planned economy, on the other hand, prevails in Germany, Russia, and Italy. A general understanding of its characteristics indicates the impossibilities of considering any such a system as "arch-capitalism." In the first place, a planned economy is the virtual socialization of production property and, hence, incompatible with the "American System." The fascist, communist and socialist are equally committed to the planned economy type or organization. In none of these countries may a person use his property freely and for purposes not favored by the government. The independent choice of the individual under capitalism is replaced by the government of a totalitarian state deciding what is to be done and who is to do it. The interest of the individual is submerged and completely lost in the emphasis of the state. Each radical school holds to the Marxian view that the

economic factor is the all important and determining one. In America we frequently are willing to insist on foregoing some economic gain in order that that cultural or other values which are more highly prized may be enjoyed.

It is difficult to know whether the chauvinistic appeal of Russia for the sacrifice of individual welfare in the interest of a gigantic state-owned industry is more or less than the chauvinistic German appeal for the sacrifice of individual welfare to make the Aryans masters of the world, or than Mussolini's drive to sacrifice the individual Italian's needs and desires that he may restore the "Glories of Rome." All these groups believe any sacrifice of the individual is justified if it enables the autocrat to move in the direction of the goal "he" has chosen. Democracy considers the individual's welfare and interests. No goal is set without considering the cost to the individuals affected. The end does not justify the means. Democracy could not have sacrificed four to six million of Russian kulaks to the ravages of starvation during the winter of 1932-1933, that the five-year program might go on without abatement. Only a dictator, a totalitarian state, could do that.

While capitalism exists on the basis of competition—a concept much abused both in practice and public discussion—each of the radical programs are dependent upon a highly monopolistic order for their functioning. If a monopoly does not already exist it must be created. This is so apparent, since production

is regulated by the government, that mere mention of the fact is sufficient.

Such is the "American System" as compared with the leftist proposals. If it is to give way to one of these new programs it might just as well be fascist as communist or socialist. The only possibility of maintaining a truly democratic state is by supporting the present structure which provides opportunity for constant minor adjustments in any way we desire to go. The appeal of communists and socialists for the support of their plan as against fascism is mere bunk so far as the rights and liberties of the common individual American citizen is concerned. The appeal for the adoption of fascism to forestall a socialist-communist state is just as irrational. Each is like offering carbolic acid so as to prevent a person's taking his life with arsenic. Such propaganda is an appeal to the gullibility of the American intelligentsia, who may be ensnared in the traditional appeal of misused words and phrases. It is well for us to realize that the most adroit propaganda need not be devoted to insure our participation in some international war.

¹ Paul Blanchard, *The Socialism of Our Times* (New York: Vanguard Press, 1929), pp. 237-238.

² *Declaration of Principles of the Socialist Party of the U.S.A.* (Chicago: Socialist Party of the U.S.A.) This is in the form of a party publicity sheet with no date attached.

³ Statement of National Committee of the Workers Party, *New Militant*, New York, June 6, 1936, p. 1. Italics are the author's.

The Teaching of the New History

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"I never liked history because I couldn't remember dates" is a comment frequently made by those who still believe that school history consists largely of memorizing long lists of sterile dates and their accompanying events. In recent years there have been almost revolutionary changes in the presentation of this study, and escape from the dominance of the chronological point of view is only one of many modifications that has practically produced a transformation in our treatment of subject matter. School history will come to be remembered as much more than a mere collection of dates. The subject today is treated far less mechanically than it once was and the chronological listing of events, depending for causality on mere sequence in time, is now outmoded. The topical method, perhaps the earliest attempt to supplant the old ineffective recitation, was designed to insure a

more logical treatment of subject matter. Proper attention is, of course, given to chronology in present day courses, for history without the time element would be static and in fact would hardly be history at all. History is a story and the "when" will ever rank in importance with the "how" and the "why." The pupil today is taught to place events in their proper time relationships and personages and events are taught in relationship to each other without demanding the exact date for every fact studied.

In addition to the study of dates, the subject matter of the old history consisted almost exclusively of military-politico narration. Today the school course is not absorbed in military events with emphasis on campaigns, routes, skirmishes, battles, strategy and tactics. No longer does the teacher devote three periods to the Battle of Gettysburg and no more do the

portraits of generals form a large part of the adornment of textbooks. Historical instruction is not designed to produce future generals, nor does it today dignify and idealize war by cloaking it with a mantle of glory, honor and courage, examples of which can be found in the pursuits of peace no less than in those of war. The historian cannot neglect the study of wars for they produced important political, economic and social changes, but the emphasis is placed on these consequences rather than on the smoke of battle. Nor is the course today, as formerly, largely a study of political aspects, of viewing man as though he were merely a "political animal." We attempt to give a true picture of civilization and to be true the picture must be complete. Due emphasis, therefore, must be given to the economic, sociological, religious, moral, and cultural factors as well as the political. In other words the historian must present a synthesis of all aspects of human civilization revealing reciprocal relationships. Political facts must be relegated to their proper position of importance lest we lose perspective in viewing the picture as a whole.

In the new history facts are, as they always have been, the basis of our study, but today it is not a mere recital of dead facts, but rather a portrayal of whatever in the past is of living significance. Facts in the sense of merely "what happened" form the subject matter of chronicle, not school history; the teacher is interested in significant facts, the relationships between facts, and an interpretation of their meaning. The emphasis on interpretation is not without attendant dangers, but it has the advantage of vitalizing the past, of making history live. The facts themselves are not artificially arranged today according to epochs, reigns of monarchs or administrations of Presidents. We are insistent that the pupil must realize that divisions of the subject are arbitrary and for convenience alone, that there are in reality no rigid dividing lines, that the four years of a President's administration is not an independent unit having truly significant characteristics of its own as though it existed in a vacuum. Instead of the isolation of facts in ready made compartments, we stress continuity. We emphasize the development of civilization which we realize is not constant progress and we are aware as well of instances of discontinuity within time and between particular civilizations.

The scope and materials of history have in the past few decades been greatly enriched by contributions from the social studies: economics, government, sociology, geography, literature, psychology, philosophy, and anthropology. The good teacher takes every opportunity to correlate history with the social studies for they are so closely related that one can hardly be understood apart from the others. The instructor in history teaches not simply history, but for example, the influences of geographic environment upon the life

of a people, the development of their institutions, and their relations with other peoples. The influence of geography upon the character of the westward movement in the United States and the consequent reaction upon the psychology of the American people as a whole is an instance in mind. It is well known how the findings of experimental psychology have influenced the historian in his interpretation of the motivations of the actors on the stage of life. It is hardly necessary to cite further examples of the broadening of the teaching practice through correlation of materials drawn from the social studies. Teaching has become much more than instruction in bone-dry events of the past. Furthermore, this enlargement of scope has led to a shift in emphasis in estimating the relative importance of the historical actors themselves. Where once history dealt almost exclusively with the activities of kings and princes, of political administrators and military conquerors, today we increasingly stress the work of the scientist, inventor, spiritual leader, literary man, musician, and artist. All these, we have come to realize, have contributed far more to our welfare and certainly touch our lives more intimately, than most conquerors and statesmen, important as they may have been in some instances.

Since history is the story of the achievements of the human race, we are trying to humanize its subject matter. Formerly history was taught as if the masses hardly existed at all, whereas today we give due emphasis to a study of the life of the people, even though the masses may have been inarticulate in their own times. In the study of the past, our pupils learn about labor problems, housing conditions, sanitation, social welfare work, educational facilities, customs, amusements, and all that goes to make up the life of a people. This trend is evident in the titles of some of our recent textbooks. Instead of histories of the United States we may now find histories of the American people. It should be understood, however, that history does not limit itself to what man has actually accomplished in the past, but interests itself also in what he has attempted to accomplish, for failures no less than successes are important in the progress of mankind. For example, peace movements before the World War are now given attention, whereas the old school of historians hardly mentioned them at all. In any attempt to give a complete picture, man's ideas, hopes and aspirations are most significant, even though he has not attained them.

Not only has history become a greatly enlarged study but a sweeping change has developed in school courses in devoting more and more time, proportionally, to the recent period and events directly related to our own age. A year of ancient history has almost disappeared as a requirement for graduation in the secondary school. Attention is focused on modern times with particular reference to the period from the

eighteenth century to the present. In the American field the same shift in interest to the recent is evident. Where Edward Channing's *A Student's History of the United States* (revised edition), published in 1904, devoted one chapter out of fourteen to developments between 1865 and 1900, today our school texts are allowing one-half or more of their space to a consideration of the post Civil War period. Some of the trends, particularly our attempt to relate all history to our times and to our own lives, are not without dangers. We are sometimes tempted to interpret past events too much in terms of the present and thus overemphasize their relative importance in the life of the times in which they actually occurred. Placing great stress upon the early beginnings of the jury system, because it is of great interest to us, may result in a pupil overemphasizing the significance of the early jury system to the people of its own time. The Magna Charta, tremendously significant in the development of Anglo-Saxon liberties, may at the hands of an over-enthusiastic teacher loom large in

the life of the common man of England in the days of King John. This tendency to overemphasize what has later become of importance to us may not only lead the pupil to view history with a loss of reality, but it may likely lead him to judge the past with present day standards. Certainly, when studying social life in the Middle Ages, to judge the life of medieval man, his general welfare and happiness, by our own standards of material comfort rather than his own, is not seeing history as it really was.

The general shifting of emphasis and the vast changes in school history which we have noted, together with developments in classroom techniques, greater knowledge of educational psychology, new and improved equipment for teaching, and varied methods of approach are making the subject more real to the modern pupil, and are lending history life and vitality. Historical instruction has gone a long ways in the past few decades and the changes have been so many and profound that we are justified in speaking of the teaching of the New History.

The American Way

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The transposition of civilization to a land of barbarism, if the former survive, will result in an individual cultural evolution. Such is the base upon which rests the significant phrase: "The American Way."

The American way was born of and nurtured in conflict—chiefly a conflict of ideals which only occasionally terminated in military combat. Some peculiar intellectual aspects following our "melting pot" refinement are the firmly held ideals of religious liberty, civil freedom, and the maintenance of human rights. They were fixed in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution, and prescribed by their authority. To the average American, the above mentioned ideals constitute the quality of democracy and are comprehended within all that the term involves.

It is not intended here to convey the notion that Americans have lived according to their philosophical designs. The Puritans denied religious liberty and political rights to others. Property qualifications for the exercise of political rights persisted in the older states for many years. Even at the present time there is much veraciously said and expressed in written words with respect to the inordinate control of money and wealth in the affairs of men.

So, to the fact of free expression, the American way must pay deference as its most inseparable attribute. When Peter Zenger, a New York editor, was arrested in 1734 for criticizing the government, there ensued one year later a famous trial which resulted in the acquittal of Zenger and a victory for the freedom of the press. During Washington's administration the parties resorted to unrestrained criticism. Not even Washington was spared humiliation and vile abuse. In discouragement he cried out that "he had rather be in his grave than his present situation"; and at another time he complained of being attacked in such "terms as could scarcely be applied to Nero, a notorious defaulter, or even to a common pick-pocket." The Republican revolution of 1800 which hoisted Jefferson to power, showed that a majority of the people did not share the Federalists distrust of the democratic right of free speech. The free expression of opinion was probably the most important characteristic of the "rugged individualism" fostered so long by American frontier democracy.

In an individualistic society during the era of personal journalism, beliefs were shaped incompatible with social democracy and a puritanical strain of intolerance and prudery has abided the

coming of the industrial order. But we have immediate assurance that if complete registration of public opinion can be approached the greatest good to the greatest number will be finally secured. In a social democracy, achievement comes through trial and error and finally trial and success. Mistakes will be made but with freedom to experiment they will be ultimately eliminated. It was in this sense that Lincoln was speaking when he said that a free government was better than a good government.

There are unmistakable proofs of a dread for dictatorship in the United States. The "common run" can not give a college definition of either fascism or communism, but judge them according to what they consider the consequence of their operation. For that purpose they peruse the newspapers for events occurring in Germany, Italy, Soviet Union, and Turkey. In spite of censorship they necessarily must resolve that the most courageous and able minds have been silenced by machine guns. Fires have made short work of books which required the patient study of millions of human beings through generations of searching for truth. Concentration camps have isolated critical intelligence and have forced the expression of uniform opinions and views. Penalties and threats have throttled the use of the means of communication to broadcast facts or opinions on which human welfare may depend.

By way of contrast to a state of affairs of that kind the benefits of democracy are here being almost unceasingly exhibited. On May 1, of last year, Commissioner of Education John W. Studebaker warned of threatening dictatorship if the educators of the nation fail to meet "the crucial issues of maintaining democracy." He outlined issues that "are not being met by programs or plans which are adequate or satisfactory" and added that "if we fail to meet the crucial issues of maintaining democracy, of increasing popular confidence in the value and efficacy of self-government, it will make little difference what we have done about the other problems." "To create the fine fabric of civilized democratic society," he continued, "requires the sacrifice, struggle, and patience of generations of human beings."

Colgate University offers a course called "Democracy in a Modern World" in contrast to another in "Dictatorships," and many other universities are doing the same thing. It is becoming the practice of different universities to sponsor institutes in the summer to which people of all walks of life are invited. Wellesley College, Williams College, and the University of Virginia are three prominent examples.

At the "Summer Institute for Social Progress" on the Wellesley campus the theme for discussion last July was "The World Challenge to Democracy—How can America Meet It?" Those who attended

the institute expressed their points of view on such current questions as these:

"Can we revamp our social structure in a way to put the main decisions on basic economic and political questions into the hands of the people?"

"Is our democratic system in America no longer adequate to meet the needs of modern life?"

"Should the government impose fair trade practices, attempt economic planning, or allow industry to govern itself?"

These suggestions of inquiry give intimation of something of the thought-provoking character of all those discussed in forum fashion.

Significant parts of the proceedings of the 1937 Williamstown Institute of Human Relations at Williams College were carried to a nation-wide radio audience. Broadcasting companies with national hook-ups have, on the whole and without favor, encouraged the manifestation of the true impressions of enlightened speakers. The National Broadcasting Company recently took into its services, James R. Angell, president emeritus of Yale, and intrusted him with the duty of directing its educational department.

The salutary achievement of Dr. Studebaker in promoting student and adult forums has meant no small gain for democracy. A Chautauqua Institute lecturer, Dr. Harry A. Overstreet, head of the philosophy department at the College of the City of New York, declared that the Declaration of Independence was a presentation of faith so far beyond the practices of those times that it is a miracle that it was ever written. He pointed out three chief obstacles to attaining to that presentation of faith. "First, there is a loss of faith in democracy; second, there is an inability to make use of our new abundance; third, there is a monopoly grip on inventions."

Normal observation obliges us to credit Dr. Overstreet's statements as deserving some merit. It would certainly appear to one whose accent has been set on the perfectibility of man that we have merely tried to "hitch our wagon to a star." But one feature that is inherent in the American way of life is that success is not achieved by beginning at the top. We choose rather the self-discipline derived from the action of trying and testing rather than the dictatorship of groups which tell us that we have not the competence to govern ourselves. Mayor F. H. La Guardia of New York said that he preferred the happiness of our unorganized imperfection to the gloom of organized perfection in other countries. Some of our faith in democracy may be lost, but the democracy itself will never fail if we keep our free school, free church and free library.

Free educational institutions will guide us more in telling us how to think than in telling us what to think hence observing the difference between

education and propaganda. Education of the really authentic species will revamp our social structure in a way to put the main decisions on basic economic and political questions into the hands of the people. It is only in this way that our democratic system can be made adequate to meet the needs of modern life.

Modern life against the many difficult problems that have been proposed for solution has become a veritable labyrinth of perplexities. Such problems, the solution of which will contribute to the "good life" must be resolved relative to their social significance; that is, we must carry out some social engineering agreeable with the rules of science. Much yet waits to be accomplished previous to the time when every person shall have the inalienable rights spoken of in the Declaration of Independence when it said: "We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are . . . endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men. . . ."

In reference to a more even leveling of glaring inequalities, Robert Quillen had this to say: "Wherever there is injustice and unfairness to the underdog; wherever there is abuse of power and violation of human rights and liberty; wherever there is suffering, poverty, sorrow, and wrong, there is a job big enough for a full-size man or woman. . . . Where the need is great the work can be great if the person who tackles the job is as big as his opportunity."

There is still some very serious doubt in the thinking of a group, able to exert great influence, as to whether the government should impose fair trade practices and attempt economic planning or allow industry to govern itself. In economic planning, there are two essential questions that must be answered: how are we to make use of our new abundance? And what shall be done about the monopoly grip on inventions? The rest of this paper shall be devoted to an examination of these themes of inquiry.

The size and youth of America have been contributive to the evolving of the possibilities of invention. Her large free trade area furnished a large market for the goods and scarcity of labor made the introduction of machinery profitable. So America will have to find a solution, in some ways special to this country, of its technological difficulties aggravated by social and political complexities. To attempt to bring that aim finally to achievement, President Roosevelt appointed a "National Resources Committee on the Social Implications of New Invention." A very significant statement made in the report of the Committee is that "There is as yet no science capable of predicting the social effects

of inventions and decades will be required for such a development."

While predictions cannot be made of the social effects of invention, there is no doubt, to quote further from the report, that "Invention is a great disturber, and it is fair to say that the greatest general cause of change in our modern civilization is invention." The President's committee has begun its work where former President Hoover's committee that edited *Recent Social and Economic Trends* left off. While true to the American way in the sense that the committee's work is mainly diagnostic and will not cut the Gordian knot to produce a Utopia; it is unthinkable that its report, even though without apparent force and direct authority, will not eventually have great effect.

The National Resources Committee is composed of eight members, including five members of the cabinet, all of whom signed the letter of transmittal. The report was prepared by the science committee of the larger body, through a special subcommittee on technology, headed by William F. Ogburn, noted sociologist of the University of Chicago, who directed and edited the study and report on *Social Trends* in 1932. The science committee includes members designated by the National Academy of Sciences, the Social Science Research Council, and the American Council on Education.

The report, with its findings and recommendations, is expected to become a new guidepost in the government's efforts, through coordinated long range planning, to prevent or reduce future depressions, with their economic dislocation and social upheavals. It was compiled in the belief that by making forecasts of likely inventions and labor-saving devices, it should be possible to make the proper adjustments in advance, so that progress in science and technology would yield its full benefit to the nation without throwing the economic and social machines out of gear. This, of course, is a vast undertaking and collaborators at the task have met what at times seemed to them almost irremediable obstacles. The lack of precise knowledge is not the most difficult fact to overcome; other equally if not more serious hindrances are inertia of the people, prejudice, lack of unity of purpose and the difficulties of concerted action.

The Committee found that "The rate of capital obsolescence is especially a major problem under monopolistic conditions, which probably favor the adoption of technological innovations less than the conditions of keen competition." Nineteen inventions, voted most useful for the period 1888-1913, were taken and averaged for their developmental intervals. Between the time when the invention was first merely thought of and the first working model or patent was one hundred seventy-six years; thence

to the first practical use, twenty-four years; to commercial success, fourteen years; to important use, twelve years. This would mean an average of fifty years from the first serious work on the invention until it came into sufficiently widespread use to render it socially significant.

The refusal of corporations to scrap equipment in order to install the new is largely responsible for the slow spread of the advantages of technological progress. The devotees of research pointed out that this difficulty could be obviated in a large measure by better accounting methods; showing that the spread of improved capital goods facilitated by inventional development appreciably augments dividends.

The problem of the use of our abundance is another that is influenced by invention. The Committee frankly says that there will always be some occupational obsolescence due to technological changes resulting from new inventions. They sanguinely hope, however, that the number of permanent maladjustments will be small and it is especially for these unfortunates that it is hoped to lessen the time lag between social and technical progress. For a society adjusted to the machine age, workmen's compensation and safety-first campaigns must ever be considered normal requirements.

The investigators do not expect any cessation of social changes due to invention. On the contrary they seem to put their only hope for the future in the adoption of inventions; only through them can the "great abundance" be produced and enjoyed. They find from their study that the amount of unemployment in the next period of business prosperity can be materially lessened by the introduction of inventions and more efficient industrial techniques. "For

instance," the Committee to substantiate the above statement says, "even if industrial techniques remained the same, the volume of production would have to be greater in the future than in 1929 in order to absorb the increase in the working population and keep unemployment to the level of that date." Monotonous tasks become mechanized, making it possible to produce more in shorter hours, thus giving more leisure to enjoy an abundant life. It is true that fewer workers are required but "new monotonous tasks are being created, through subdivision of old jobs whose product had become available for larger scale production."

After all, possibly the most vital suggestion made by the National Resources Committee was the recommendation of a permanent over-all planning board: a sort of "technological telescope" through which trained observers would constantly peer into the future and presage scientific advances. Such a group could do invaluable work.

These observers, according to the Committee, would be placed on a federal board known as the National Resources Board which would take its place in the governmental pattern as coördinator for the many special planning boards, of which there are now forty-seven state boards, four hundred county boards, and one thousand and one hundred city boards.

A permanent board of that nature could meet the challenge of an ever changing society. It, of course, is not claimed that democracy's way of solution of its problems is the quickest; but in the words of Chancellor Gray of American University, Washington, D.C.: "Democracy is not to be judged by our unachieved ideal, but by the alternatives which are available."

The Call to Leadership¹

JOY ELMER MORGAN

Editor, "Journal" of the National Education Association

I have been especially interested in the National Association of Student Officers from its earliest beginnings. It is one of the most important movements in America because it gives young people a part in the important affairs of today's life. It gives them an opportunity to study the problems of youth and of our country and to learn how to work together coöperatively to improve conditions.

Every child is born with four great desires: the desire to be strong, the desire to do right, the desire to learn, and the desire to be useful. These are the foundations on which character is built and they are

the foundations of a stable and well-ordered national life.

There are times in the world's history when new patterns of life are being worked out. We call them times of transition. This is such a time and you are privileged to have a part in it. This generation will probably determine the pattern of life in America for several centuries to come, so that your dreams and your ideals and the things that you are willing to prepare yourselves for and to live for are of the utmost importance. You who are here today represent one of the greatest of our institutions, the American

high school. The growth of the high school is amazing. In 1900 there were five hundred thousand students in our American high schools; in 1910 a million; in 1920 two million; in 1930 five million; in 1937 seven million. This means that seven out of ten of the young people who are of high school age are today in high school. This represents a widespread elevation of our cultural standard of living and should have a profound effect upon the future of our democratic institutions. (Between the presidential election of 1936 and the election of 1940 the number of high school and college graduates in the United States will double. I cannot help thinking that that increase in the number of people who have had some higher education will have a profound influence on our political leadership and on the spirit in which we shall solve our pressing economic problems.)

The human mind is a marvelous tool and I need not tell you that the use you make of your minds will have a great deal to do with your success in life. It is a simple rule of psychology that what goes into the mind comes out in the life. In the formation of our minds and in our search for information we have depended too largely upon the daily newspaper. At a meeting of the American Academy of Political and Social Science in April, 1935, an address was made by a noted Italian scholar, formerly a professor of history at the University of Florence, Dr. Gaetano Salvemini. He was discussing the success of democracy in the modern world, and pointed out that:

The third weak point in present-day democracy is the daily press. A century ago, when freedom of the press was one of the principal demands of liberals everywhere, any group of men with talent and a small sum of money could start a newspaper and acquire an influence in the country proportionate to their ability. This was a period of free competition between small daily papers. But during the past half century the daily newspaper has become a great capitalist enterprise requiring millions of dollars for its establishment. Hence whoever has the necessary millions is in a position to flood the country daily with tons of printed matter, although his genius may consist solely in knowing how to find out what particular brand of crime and type of feminine legs most appeal to the sensibilities of the less educated section of the population. Many of these papers are the property of capitalist concerns, or are subservient to personal vanities, which too often do not promote the welfare of the community. The publisher of one of these newspapers can poison the mind of a whole country with mendacious stories or by the suppression of news. He is a despot who is not responsible to anyone for the manner in which he exercises his authority; he has liberty

without responsibility. The press is now a dictatorship of a unique kind. Planted in the midst of free institutions, it insidiously disturbs and perverts them. The division of powers on which free government was originally based, has disappeared and the Fourth Estate—the great daily press—having overcome all the other powers—the executive, the legislative, and the judicial—reigns supreme in their stead. The omnipotence of the press is perhaps the most dangerous disease which infects free institutions today. If the daily press were not so corrupt and stupid—more often stupid than corrupt—even the vote-catching system would not work so badly; and congressmen directed by an intelligent and honest press would be able to cut a better figure.²

If through the newspapers and the radio and the movies we fill our people's minds with trivialities, vulgarities, and indecencies we cannot expect the integrity in our political and economic life which should be possible if our intellectual interests were on a higher plane. We need to read the newspapers less and to turn more often to books, government documents and the more dependable sources of information. The world will always respect the man or woman who knows, and who brings to bear upon the problems of daily life a judicious mind and a wholesome spirit.

The field of the National Association of Student Officers is almost unlimited. There are a million such officers in the secondary schools of America. The way they perform their tasks as presidents of classes, secretaries, treasurers, members of committees will help determine the character of the contributions they will make as citizens to the common welfare of our country. Therefore, I am going to make to you, and through you to student officers everywhere, a few practical suggestions in the development of your power of leadership.

Suggestion 1: Determine to put your mind on the matters nearest you and to bring reason and good will into them. This sounds foolishly simple, but who has not seen people who have failed in home life, in their occupations, or in their quest for happiness because they have neglected to examine matters which they could have easily corrected had they applied themselves to them. Let us take, for example, the non-coöperative attitude which often develops within the home or the school. None of us in his better moments desires to be stubborn or unreasonable or unkind in his attitude toward others, but how frequently do we, for some reason which would disappear if we really examined it, go on building up barriers between ourselves and our human brothers and sisters.

Suggestion 2: Adopt in your own life and in your school organizations a frankly experimental attitude.

Plan, try, criticize, revise, plan, and try again and again and again, not only in the little things but in the larger things, always in search of a better way. The experimental attitude has worked marvels in the field of science and invention. Our material life today has been completely changed as a result of the experimental attitude. The automobile is a good example of its application. Year after year it has been different; the self-starter, the closed car, four-wheel brakes, high compression engine—all have come marching in through the years until we expect experiment and change. There have been mistakes, like free wheeling, but the gains have proved the wisdom of the experimental point of view. Our school organizations need inventors as well as followers—people who are willing to set higher standards and to try new things.

Suggestion 3: Ask yourself and encourage others to ask themselves, "What kind of life do I want?" Let this be practical search, not mere day-dreaming. Look at the people about you in search of points of experience. You can watch your friends and neighbors; you can study biography; you can form conceptions about the fundamental and lasting values, and these conceptions which you form in response to a genuine search for the wisdom of life will have a meaning for you that no platitudes or bookish preaching can ever have. By this method you may establish the habit of life-long search for the real values.

Suggestion 4: Ask yourself "What can I do to achieve for myself the kind of life I want?" Here again there will be something far more than day-dreaming. One must search for every asset and liability within his being, within his family background, his physical resources, the limitations of his earlier years, his financial situation, his schooling, and all the elements of strength in his character. He must make allowances for the vicissitudes of the years, for the peculiar difficulties and opportunities of the age.

It would be easy to say that one cannot plan his life, that he can never have what he wants, but we may be sure of this: that the person who knows where he is going and who has a plan of action, who is willing to revise and improve year by year will come nearer arriving at a worth while destination than he who drifts and indulges in riotous living, with no thought of the future.

Suggestion 5: Ask yourself "What kind of a civilization do I want?" When we have developed individuals who are happy in their own lives, we have gone a long way toward a worthy civilization; but under present conditions we cannot obtain for the individual a worthy life without putting vastly more emphasis than humanity has ever put before upon our common goals and upon the general welfare. Here again as in the individual life we must break

new ground in the light of new conditions. We must consider anew what we want the family to be like, what we want the schools to be like, our churches, our occupations, our recreation, our government, our ideas of property, of security, of income, the values that we shall exalt and the values that we shall subordinate.

Suggestion 6: Ask yourselves "What can I do to achieve the civilization which I believe desirable and attainable?" You will begin discovering such answers as this: I must study hard to understand social and economic conditions. I must know personally the men and women who represent me in government and must insist that they be people of purpose, integrity, progressive outlook and social vision. I must do my part to bring about reforms and to move forward into new policies covering the right of every man to enjoy the benefits which I claim for myself.

Suggestion 7: Learn to test and to trust your own judgment. Like my first suggestion this seems simple: and yet it is the most difficult of all and is perhaps the supreme measure of real leadership, for the true leader, after he has sought in every possible direction for a wise interpretation of events, must in the end sit in judgment, make up his mind, act on his decision and accept the consequences. Judgment, like other traits of character, is developed by action.

These are counsels of perfection, but the real leader is not afraid of the pursuit of perfection. He knows to begin with that it is an elusive pursuit, but that the gains will repay the effort. The psychologists tell us that we are motivated mainly by pain or pleasure. Leadership today is easier than drift. The penalties of not leading, of not facing up to the facts are illustrated by conditions in Italy or Germany. These conditions could have been avoided if the people in positions of leadership had been willing to lead out. Similar conditions can be avoided in this country; and if we must be stirred by fear, let us realize that the time is at hand when we must act if we wish our democracy to continue; or we may look at the other side, and be inspired, not by fear or by pain, but by the full realization that we can, if we will, become masters of the conditions which surround us, that we can arrange the affairs of this nation so that there will be a reasonably good life for our population and a reasonable promise and opportunity for the two million children who each year are born into our civilization.

¹ An address delivered before the sixth annual convention of the National Association of Student Officers, Detroit, July 3, 1937.

² Gaetano Salvemini, "What is Freedom?" *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, CLXXX (July, 1935), 2-3.

Vitalizing History by Means of the Unitary Plan of Instruction

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INTRODUCTION

For centuries the purpose of education has been conceived as that of passing on to the young the accumulated wisdom of the human race. A new concept, based largely upon the theories of the eighteenth century philosopher, Rousseau, is manifesting itself. This concept reverses the old process and makes the child the center of education; he is the active agent; his needs form the basis for the selection of subject matter; and his activities, not those of the teacher, become the essential and determining factor in his learning.¹

HISTORY AS VIEWED TODAY

Many new methods and procedures of teaching are before us today; hence we find ourselves considering how we can best use each to the advantage of the pupils in developing personalities. Our present day aims in education demand that the best method possible be used for the development of individuals. As for the teaching of history, the pupil is often confronted with a mass of facts, names, dates, battles or other events; he is constantly trying to remember what he has studied.

There is a great need for the pupil to learn how to master the facts of history in their significant relations, and unless he learns how to trace movements, and how to see institutions in the process of growth, with some appreciation of the great forces underlying the surface phenomena, he might as well spend his time on some other subject.

NEEDFUL HISTORY OBJECTIVES

History can no longer be taught by simply memoriter conning of the pages of a textbook if desired results are to be attained. Definite objectives must be set up. From the study of history should come: (1) The accumulation of certain definite knowledge of the past wisely chosen to explain the present, in accord with the general aims of secondary education; (2) the development of abilities which are needful for impartial and effective investigation of social materials and for rendering constructive judgments and decisions about social affairs; (3) the understanding

of such fundamental principles as the continuity of history, etc.; (4) the attainment of noble ideals and high concepts of loyalty to oneself and to one's fellowmen by teaching the cost of the elements of civilization during the past; (5) the inculcation of attitudes of historical mindedness, scientific mindedness and such other attitudes as will aid in training for citizenship; (6) the development of cultural interests.² Not only should there be general objectives, but specific objectives for the teaching of certain organized material and movements of history. The most modern method employed today for making realistic these definite and specific objectives is the unit method.

MORRISON'S UNIT PLAN

Most of the current concepts of unit organization and units of learning are based upon Morrison's plan. His system actually enlivens history when properly used, in spite of the fact that history, because of its chronological aspect, is a difficult subject to organize by units. "A unit," as defined by Morrison, "is a comprehensive significant aspect of the environment or of an organized science, of an art, or of conduct, which being learned results in an adaptation in personality."³ Since so many wrong views and misunderstandings are had concerning a unit and what a unit is, we might consider another definition for a unit as given by an exponent of the unitary principle, "A unit is a comprehensive and significant aspect of some field of knowledge that, when mastered proves an adaptative step in the adjustment of the individual."⁴ Let us consider the set-up of Morrison's system regarding history. First comes the organization. With this the teacher must study carefully her text and decide upon the number of units she will have in her course of work, keeping in mind the true importance of movements, rather than a long list of topics. After the units have been decided upon, her next important task is the selection of material which is vital for the understanding and interpretation of the unit. She must consider the different types of pupils, ages, grade of her pupils as she works out her units and the material to be used. Now she is ready to proceed with her work. Morrison's five steps of procedure are as follows:

1. Exploration—To find what the pupils already know. This may be oral discussion, new type new type tests, or the like.
2. Presentation—This is a preview given by the teacher, touching the high points of the unit to be undertaken by the pupils. If this has not been made clear a re-presentation must be given. Next comes the most important of all steps:
3. The Assimilation—During this time the pupils study and assimilate the necessary material for the understanding of the unit. They are supervised during this period of study by the teacher. In fact the classroom becomes a laboratory where the pupils are free to move about for books, consult one another on various problems, consult the teacher, use maps, bulletin boards and other aids. When the work as given to the pupils on the mimeographed sheets is checked, those who fail must go back and work on their weak points.
4. Organization—Each pupil is required to write a logical outline, the content of which shows that he has a thorough knowledge of the unit.
5. Recitation—One pupil may be called upon to present the unit to the class as did the teacher at the outset, or several pupils may be called upon to give floor talks, the remainder of the class taking written recitations on the unit.

The time required for the various steps of the unit will vary according to the length of the unit. The assimilation period necessitates more time than any of the other steps. Morrison has a firm belief that mastery can be obtained by these steps; however we must not forget that his plan of procedure is not adapted to all types of learning. This science type of learning requires a different plan of procedure than some other types.⁵

There are three kinds of units chronologically, namely: (1) A unit which begins in an early period of history and ends with the present; (2) A unit which begins in an early period of history and ends some time in the past; and (3) A unit which begins where the preceding unit ends.⁶ It is of importance to give worthy attention to the chronological sequences of historical movements as the units are being worked out.

Another important unitary plan in use today which vitalizes history is the Virginia unit method. It is adaptable to the various types of pupils who crowd our classrooms daily. If we were to attempt to differentiate between Morrison's unit plan and the Virginia plan we might say: Morrison places before the pupil material and says, "This is to be mastered by all—Yes, each item," while the Virginia plan places before the pupil a guide sheet and says, "Here is

listed a minimum requirement to be mastered by each pupil and two more levels of work for the pupils who desire to climb high and higher in order to do superior work." You will find, however that some of the steps of procedure of the Virginia plan are similar to those of Morrison's. Let us note the Virginia procedure:

Form and Feature of the Social Science Unit.

1. Name or title of the unit:
 - (a) To indicate a large unit of subject matter, with related and constituent parts.
 - (b) To show natural and essential relationship to the course as a whole and the other units in particular.
 - (c) To indicate a major problem of our present-day democracy, and suggest the problem method of approach.
2. The objectives of the unit:
 - (a) General objectives of the course.
 - (b) Specific things to be learned.
3. The bibliography—suitable for laboratory methods.
4. Other materials, such as maps, charts, graphs, magazines, newspapers, clippings, bulletin board, etc.
5. Exploratory questions or test.
6. Minimum assignment (first achievement level): to be mastered by all pupils, and to serve as a basis for the test at the close of the unit—Directed study period of several days.
7. The advanced assignments—second (or "B"), and third (or "A") achievement levels.
8. Summary and review—(including oral reports, or debates, etc., by the pupils) (especially for "B" and "A" levels), in addition to the summary conducted by the teacher.
9. The test: Usually an objective test, to cover the essential points—to test the learning accomplished.
10. Critical weekly reading reports, handed in on a form prepared for the purpose, to test the character and values of reading being done as the unit progresses. (One report each week.)⁷

With such an outline of procedure it is very necessary that the teacher keeps in mind the necessary steps in the mastery of the unit. The following should be carried out:

1. Introducing the unit—two phases:
 - (a) Getting the problem clearly before the class:
 - (b) Preliminary testing—finding what the pupils individually already know about the unit, in order to know what is yet to be learned by each—"Exploratory Questions." (Class may participate orally in much of this.)

2. Presentation of the unit, or "Overview" by the teacher. Covers briefly essential points of the unit and furnishes the chief basis for the written work to be handed in by the pupil at the close of period of directed study.
3. Directed Study Period—(5 to 10 days) with the classroom, library and other materials as a laboratory, for each pupil to use at his own rate of procedure under direction of the teacher. (Group discussions to be engaged in only when some difficulty or interest affects the large majority of the pupils at the same time.)
4. Organization and completion of the unit assignment: includes the write-up of the unit in notebook, preparation of outlines for oral work; floor talks, debates, making of graphs, etc.
5. Recitation—oral and written (includes unit test). Summary and review.⁸

With such a unit plan of instruction history is made vital to the pupil. The pupil senses a keen joy in noticing his own individual progress as he ascends the ladder of achievement. Here individual differences are taken care of. The teacher is constantly thinking of the objectives and her pupils as she constructs with diligence her units of work. History is made alive by using such a system.

THE VIRGINIA PLAN IN USE IN SECOND WARD HIGH SCHOOL

In Second Ward High School, Charlotte, N.C., American history at one time seemed a dead and dull subject to many pupils. So often pupils approached the head of the the social science department with these questions: "Do I have to take American history?" "Why do I have to take history, especially when I don't like it?" "Of what good is history to me?" "I never did like history in the elementary grades, so why do I have to take history in high school?" With these questions, the head of the department, who had charge of all American history classes in the high school, began studying her pupils. She diagnosed the weaknesses of her pupils at the beginning of the year and after having determined the defects of her pupils sought to apply remedial work. How was this done? By the Virginia unit plan of instruction.

This plan was simplified to meet the particular needs of the pupils. It was very amusing to watch the facial expressions of several pupils when the teacher announced: "Girls and boys, we are going to work together and see if we can vitalize history and make it real to us." These brief statements seemed to have put the class at ease. The first unit was presented according to the steps of the Virginia unit procedure. Each pupil had his guide sheet and valued the printed material (a change from much blackboard work). What a joy came to the teacher as she watched her

pupils work. Frequently the teacher noticed a pupil who out of sheer laziness decided to let the class, without himself, "bring history to life." He was approached by the teacher with a smile and kindly tone of voice, "I believe you're waiting for me to give you some assistance on one of your problems here. May I help you?" or "What is there on your guide sheet which is not clear to you?" With such kindly approaches from the teacher the pupils who were prone to be negligent about their work decided to spur up and show some class pride. Soon the teacher had little motivating to do after the presentation of the unit. Her job was to watch her pupils carefully in order to notice any difficulty which might arise and to check each achievement level's work as pupils progressed. What a pleasure it was to also notice the beaming faces of pupils as they successfully completed a level's work and received just a mere word of commendation from the teacher. The poorer pupils were always aiming to reach another achievement level, while the average and superior pupils always had plenty of constructive, worth-while activities to keep them busy searching for knowledge. Instead of having weekly reports on the unit written up in notebooks, attractive cards 4" x 6" were conveniently used for this work, with this form:

History Reading Card

Date..... Name of pupil.....

References

Author..... Title of Book.....
Pages Read

Title of Article Read

Digest: (Space was left here for a brief digest)

Achievement Level

The teacher used her discretion in deciding the closing date of the unit, by watching the progress of her pupils. The interest exhibited by the pupils in the organization and recitation at the close of the unit was surprising. It was indeed encouraging to the teacher to have several pupils approach her with words as these, "May I give a talk tomorrow to the class on the unit?" or "Please let me read my outline to the class, for I think it is a good outline." or "John and I can present a debate to the class if you think our points are good enough." When the unit test was given the results were gratifying. The teacher (knowing how well pupils like keen rivalry) posted the grades by making a chart on the blackboard. This chart included results from the unit's test as compiled from five sections of American history classes as taught by the teacher. Below is given the grade by groups (or sections) from classes in American history as secured from an objective test at the close of a unit's work.

Range of Grades	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3	Group 4	Group 5
A 93-100	5	3	9†	5	6
B 85-92	9	7	11	10	9
C 77-84	12	16	12	16	16
D 70-76	13	11	8	11	9
E = Failures	1	4	3	2	—
No. Taking Test	40	41	43	44	*40

† Small star group—largest number of A's.

* Large star group—having least, or no failures.

The range of grades is written with light green crayon, the group grades with light blue crayon, and a deep colored red line is drawn below 70-76 denoting a danger line. Failures are written with red crayon. All pupils strive earnestly to make grades which will place them above the danger line. A large star made with yellow (gold) crayon is placed at the bottom of the column of the group which has the least number of failures and a small yellow star at the top of the column of the group which has the largest number of pupils whose grades range between 93-100, A. How interesting it is to see forty or more beaming faces of a victorious group at the close of a unit's test waiting to hear the teacher's words of commendation! The teacher likewise urges those groups which fall below the excelling groups to strive to raise their averages on the next unit's test. This added feature to the Virginia unit plan helped to vitalize history at Second Ward School.

For the organization of a history club, the Virginia plan again proved to be of great value. Only pupils who accomplished the superior type of work on each unit and maintained a good standing on each completed unit were admitted. Here the pupils had several incentives for the performing of a task, and performing it well.

UNIT OF LEARNING AND UNIT OF TEACHING DIFFERENTIATED

So much confusion comes in the planning of units of work because there is not a clear understanding of a unit of learning and a unit of teaching.—A unit of learning is a group of planned coordinated activities of the teacher for the purpose of assisting the learner to attain the educational objectives set up as desirable to obtain mastery over a life situation. On the other hand, a unit of teaching is not an ability to be developed in the teacher; it is the guiding of the learning process of the learner; it is assisting the learner to reach his goal.⁹

TEACHABLE UNITS

The question is frequently being raised by teachers of history: How many teachable units must I make in planning my work? The number of teachable units in a given course or series of courses at secondary level, which is either necessary or desirable, is small, but the important thing to consider is the amount of assimilative material needed for each unit. This seems to be much greater than the ordinary textbook can well supply. Hence comes the great need for a well equipped library. There must be, however, in the organization of units attention given to these points:

1. Organize in terms of the present conditions in the school rather than in terms of ultimate and desirable conditions.

2. Select the units wisely in accordance with the materials available and the pupils to be taught. On this second point so many conscientious teachers fail. They adhere too strictly to a plan of teaching as studied, instead of simplifying or modifying the plan to meet the needs of the pupils who are being taught.

CONCLUSION

With various types and plans of instruction facing the teacher today, she must study carefully each plan, study her pupils, evaluate each plan, and experiment if necessary until she finds the procedure which best suits in carrying out objectives and aims of the course. Strict adherence to any particular method may prove injurious to the welfare of the pupils. The teacher today who is alert, who does not mind working, and who strives constantly to vitalize history, may feel safe in selecting the Virginia plan of instruction as a basis for her year's work. She may vary her methods during the year as she sees fit, but once that she has used the Virginia plan and used it successfully, she will keep it on hand to meet the individual needs of her pupils.

¹ Arthur J. Jones, "The Unit of Learning," *Educational Outlook*, IX (November, 1934), 31.

² Arthur C. and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1935), pp. 45-46.

³ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, Revised edition, 1931), pp. 24-25.

⁴ Professor E. T. Smith quoted in R. B. Weaver and H. C. Hill, *United States History by Units* (Chicago: W. F. Quarrie and Company, 1933), p. 6.

⁵ Arthur C. and David H. Bining, *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools*, p. 195.

⁶ R. B. Weaver and H. C. Hill, *United States History by Units*, p. 7.

⁷ W. R. Smithey, "Secondary Education in Virginia," *University of Virginia Record, Extension Series*, XVII (January, 1933), p. 148.

⁸ *Ibid.* p. 149.

⁹ Arthur J. Jones, "The Unit of Learning," *Educational Outlook*, IX (November, 1934), 37.

Teaching Social Problems Without a Textbook

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American textbooks are probably the best in the world. In fact, they are so beautifully illustrated and so alluring that choosing between them is like picking out a Christmas gift for a middle-aged uncle whose likes and dislikes are firmly established.

However, in supervising my class of seniors in American social problems, I want no basal text. The arguments for using textbooks are well known, but probably too little attention has been given to the arguments on the other side of the question.

What are some of these arguments?

(1) Economy. Textbooks cost money whether they are purchased by the pupil or the board of education. It may be an unwarranted reflection on American teaching, but it is an undisputed fact that most textbooks are quickly disposed of after the course work is completed. Their "survival value" to the pupil is deplorably low.

(2) Textbooks contain highly generalized conclusions which it is hard for the pupil to escape. The pupil too often makes these generalizations uncritically his own. The wise teacher can offset this disadvantage to some extent, but it is doubtful whether he can always do so successfully.

(3) Rapid obsolescence. Textbooks that deal with strictly modern problems are out of date within a few years. Supplementary and corrected materials can be used, but many teachers cannot provide or handle such material when it is most needed.

(4) The lack of sufficient basis for vital discussion. Because of the highly generalized statements, pupils come to class with little more than the second-hand ideas of one author. Compare this situation with the one in which each pupil draws from a variety of sources. Most high schools have some library facilities today, but it would be interesting to know to what extent the almost universal use of textbooks has interfered with library expansion.

(5) In using a textbook pupils are not sufficiently thrown back on their own resources. They do not learn how to gather material and draw valid conclusions, either in class discussion or written work. One reason we make such limited progress in developing good study habits is because the hard necessity of

acquiring such habits through self-dependent study is often lacking.

(6) The teacher himself may be handicapped by the ease with which he can shift responsibility to an author. It is true that he need not be dependent on predigested materials, yet too often this is the result of textbook teaching.

(7) Because they are used throughout the nation, textbooks can recognize local problems only by suggested exercises and questions within or at the end of each chapter. This may be enough for the alert teacher, but the positive pressure to analyze the local nature of national problems is missing.

(8) With a general exposition of a subject in the hands of each pupil, it is not often possible to give an individual pupil the opportunity to follow up his special interests. At least the incentive for him to do so is rarely present.

These are not arguments for abandoning textbooks, as in many cases this would be a serious mistake. However, my experience has led me to the conclusion that many, in fact most, senior high students would profit from an occasional course in which no textbook is used. That both experienced and inexperienced teachers feel it necessary to use textbooks in all their classes may be an indication that publishers are efficient salesmen, or on the other hand it may imply lack of adequate training of our high school teachers.

My classes in social problems have worked without textbooks for more than four years. At the start this is confusing to some, but by the end of the semester most of them are well satisfied. They have no textbook to sell or throw away at the end of the year. Instead, unless I am badly mistaken, they have acquired a critical open-mindedness free from the smug complacency of the author who leans over backward to be fair to both sides.

Before a class can be successfully conducted without a text, certain requirements must be met.

First, the teacher must be thoroughly trained (probably with some experience) and must have a lively interest in history and in modern problems. These facts are perhaps too obvious to require elabo-

ration, but they are important.

Second, the school must have good library facilities. There should be at least a dozen appropriate periodicals, and at least one good book on social, economic, or political problems for each three pupils. The greater the variety and the more recent the books the better they are for the purpose. There should also be one or two daily newspapers to supplement those available in the homes. A good recent encyclopedia, the *World Almanac*, and the *American Yearbook* are advisable but not essential. Finally, there should be a growing supply of useful pamphlets, obtainable at a small price or free from government agencies or private organizations.

Third, the teacher must work out a definite but flexible sequence of units in advance. Portions of these units, but not necessarily complete units, should be available to each pupil in mimeographed form. In my own experience, I have found it advisable to hand out materials one unit at a time, so that the work of the entire class may be concentrated without the distraction to other units which the textbook makes possible. The material given to each pupil should include a complete bibliography and lists of questions, but need not include a lengthy discussion written by the teacher, as this material may be accumulated by the pupils themselves. There is nothing sacred about the sequence of units; it may and probably should be changed from year to year, and similarly, each unit should be revised each year.

Fourth, there should be training in good habits of reading and in outlining and summarizing material. In our school we have decided that corrective reading work shall be done by the teacher whose course demands each type of reading, not by the English department. Pupils should be instructed in how to classify materials into logical outlines for the purpose of summarizing units, and drawing conclusions.

Fifth, there must be plenty of checking on outside reading. Some pupils will do much, others little, and it may happen that those who do the least show up best in the final tests. This need cause no anxiety, for there are pupils who learn more from a little reading and much thinking than they do from extensive reading. However, it is probably best to set a minimum. Some of my pupils have reported as many as fifteen readings during a unit, about half from books, another half from periodicals and newspapers.

Finally, at times during the study of the unit, and always at the end, carefully planned essay and objective tests should be given. My usual practice is to have short tests during the progress of the unit, followed by discussion, and to devote two days to testing at the end of the unit, followed by the necessary re-teaching. The two days of testing usually come after from three to five weeks of intensive work.

Procedures must be varied and stimulating, and yet

all must contribute to the single objective which is set up for each unit. Supervised study in the class is used when it will be most productive, usually the first week or two of the unit. At times informal arguments (not debates) are given by from two to four pupils who have made special preparation. Individual reports are fitted into the unit when they will make a real contribution to the class, but not when they will not. Outside speakers may be asked to contribute near the close of a unit, to help in summarizing. Outside reading is continuous throughout the unit. Open discussion is important at certain phases of the unit, but it belongs in the middle of the unit, after the pupils have acquired a background for it. If interest lags a day may be taken for consideration of a current problem not connected with the unit, but this should be done infrequently. In a course of this kind, it is a mistake to allow the pupils to think of a unit as entirely completed. Every opportunity is taken to bring in fresh material on previous units as it becomes available.

There are no daily assignments. Possibly this would not be good policy with all classes, but it works well with seniors. How the assignments are made will depend somewhat on the nature of the unit. Several times I have outlined the work for the entire unit from three to six weeks in advance, and the results have been encouraging. Pupils are not allowed to take the time of the class with flimsy reports, and are not allowed to hand in written work that is poorly done. The requirement is that all such work must be re-written as often as necessary, and the first attempt must be in on time. Constant checking will prevent the last minute rush that means careless work.

About once a semester pupils are given an opportunity to work out a simple research project on some topic connected with a unit. This means that each pupil has a topic which is all his own. He writes an "investigative theme," utilizing skills he has acquired in his courses in English. An outline of the theme, proper footnoting, and a complete bibliography are required with each paper. Last year the six best themes were corrected and typed, then bound and placed in the library for reference. Under proper titles these will be used like any ordinary library material by incoming classes. Eventually it may be realized that each class may contribute to the work of each succeeding class, making it unnecessary that the same work be done over and over again year after year.

In a thirty-six week school year it is possible to teach not more than ten units. Each unit has a single objective, toward the achievement of which all work is directed. The list given below was carried out in 1936-1937 in the order given, but the choice of units, order and objectives are revised each year.

Unit I. Society and Social Progress. Objective: An understanding of the meaning and significance of

society and social progress. Time: one and one-half weeks.

Unit II. Health and Public Safety. Objective: An understanding and appreciation of the importance of safeguarding and improving health and safety through public and private agencies. Time: four weeks.

Unit III. Population Problems. Objective: An understanding of the sources, distribution, and general characteristics of the people of the United States; an appreciation of the importance of tolerance toward those who have come from other countries and those who are of other races; an intelligent attitude toward efforts to improve the quality of our population. Time: three and one-half weeks.

Unit IV. The Family and American Standards of Living. Objective: An understanding of the changing nature of the American family; of the relations of the family and its members to the larger social groups, and of living conditions among American families. Time: four weeks.

Unit V. Education and Religion. Objective: An understanding and appreciation of the public and private agencies contributing to the educational advancement of the American people; of the place of religion in American life. Time: four weeks.

Unit VI. Crime and Delinquency. Objective: An understanding of the menace of delinquency and crime to American institutions, and of the possibilities of improvement in detection and punishment of crime, the protection of the public, and crime prevention. Time: four weeks.

Unit VII. Poverty and Dependency. Objective: An understanding and appreciation of the extent to which society is responsible for the care of the impoverished and dependent population, and how society may relieve and remove the conditions which lead to poverty and dependency. Time: four weeks.

Unit VIII. Economic Phases of Social Problems. Objective: An understanding of the economic aspects of social problems, political, social and economic reform movements, and popular attitudes on American problems. Time: three and one-half weeks.

Unit IX. Government and Society. Objective: An understanding of units of government as agencies for the promotion of a democratic solution of American problems. Time: three and one-half weeks.

Unit X. World Problems. Objective: An understanding of the importance of international relations in the modern world, of American foreign policy, and of attempts to solve important problems through international coöperation. Time: four weeks.

The Use of Symbols in Teaching History

An Experiment in Teaching Social Relationships

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Many teachers are becoming aware of the inherent danger of "verbal illiteracy." Too frequently teachers find that their students know and use words and phrases without understanding their meaning and fail to understand the social relationships and the interplay of social forces as described in the books they read and the lectures they hear. Symbols are time-saving, they create a challenge to the students' thinking, and are a short cut to the minds of students. Early written languages were based on symbols. Modern abbreviations popularized during the war are really symbols. In Britain N O R A became famous, the socialists popularized S-D, the bolsheviks', USSR, the New Deal, a host of alphabetical symbols. Such

symbols are terse and meaningful; they save time. In teaching some of the social sciences the use of symbols to represent ideas and relationships makes for good classroom teaching and learning. "Verbal illiteracy" can be eliminated by the use of symbols.

For some time the writer has been using symbols as a classroom teaching technique and has found these very effective. This article explains some of the symbols used and how they are employed in teaching. Other teachers may question the validity of the relationships as shown by these symbols. However, it is not the purpose of this article to start a controversy about the relationship, but to present a technique of teaching.

	DEFINITION OF SYMBOLS
C	Civilization and culture
S	Surplus wealth
PP	Political power
EP	Economic power
d	degree
t	type
a	amount
p	methods of producing
o	ownership
c	control
u	use of .
+	and
—	bears a direct relationship to

USE OF SYMBOLS

Formulae—Basic

$\frac{C}{S}$	Civilization bears a direct relationship to surplus wealth
$\frac{PP}{EP}$	Political power bears a direct relationship to economic power
C^d	degree of civilization
C^t	type of civilization
S^a	amount of surplus wealth
S^p	the methods of producing surplus wealth
S^o	the ownership of surplus wealth
S^c	the control of surplus wealth

Formulae—Secondary

$\frac{C^d}{S^a}$	The degree of civilization bears a direct relationship to the amount of surplus wealth.
$\frac{C^t}{S^p}$	The type of civilization bears a direct relationship to the methods of producing surplus wealth.
$\frac{S^p}{S^{o+c}}$	The methods of producing surplus wealth bear a direct relationship to the ownership and control of surplus wealth.
$\frac{S^{o+c}}{S^u}$	The ownership and control of surplus wealth bears a direct relationship to the use of surplus wealth.
$\frac{C^t}{S^u}$	The type of civilization bears a direct relationship to the use of surplus wealth.

$\frac{C^{d+t}}{S^{p+a}, S^{o+c}, S^t}$ The degree and type of civilization bear a direct relationship to the methods of production and the amount of surplus wealth and to the ownership and control of surplus wealth, as well to the use of surplus wealth.

$\frac{EP}{S^{o+c}}$ Economic power bears a direct relationship to the ownership and control of surplus wealth.

$\frac{PP}{S^{o+c}}$ Political power bears a direct relationship to the ownership and control of surplus wealth.

EXAMPLES

The use of these symbols in the classroom is not nearly as complicated as a reading of the description of the symbols and "formulae" would lead the reader to think. The instructor introduces the symbols as he needs them. He does not give them to the students to learn by rote. They learn them in the process of using them.

Example I

Having discussed the meaning of the words civilization and culture the instructor writes C on the board. He then discusses the problem of how culture arises and its relationship to the amount of surplus wealth and how it is produced. He then writes on the board

$\frac{C}{S}$ and asks the class to explain what this symbol means, then he proceeds to add the various exponents. He may write on the board C^d and ask the class to state what it means. Proceeding this way he introduces those symbols and basic "formulae" which he wishes to use during the classroom period. Having presented these he proceeds to use them in such a way as to cover the subject matter of the day's assignment and to emphasize the meaning of the symbols and formulae.

Example II

An example of how this is done is herewith given: The instructor asks the class what is the economic basis of a pastoral society, writing on the black board:

The economic basis of a pastoral society:

Herds of domestic animals.

Then he writes on the board:

S	of a pastoral society is primarily in domestic animals.
S^p	in a pastoral society is the breeding and care of domestic animals.
C^d	of a pastoral society is directly related to the number of domesticated animals.
S^{o+c}	in a pastoral society lies in the hands of those who own and control the largest herds of domestic animals.
C^t	of a pastoral society is directly related to the breeding and care of domestic animals.
EP	in a pastoral society lies in the hands of those who own and control the largest number of herds.
PP	in a pastoral society lies in the hands of those who own and control the largest number of herds.

The instructor then presents the secondary group of formulae which represent the relationships he has just presented.

The instructor may proceed to present what other material he wishes in regard to primitive tribal societies, the tabu, the totem, the mores, and folkways, the shamans, the tribal chieftains, council of elders etc., and relate these to the symbols and formulæ.

Having once introduced these symbols and formulæ of group I the instructor uses them in dealing with other topics. If he wishes to take up primitive agricultural societies he may proceed in the same way.

Example III

The economic basis of a primitive agricultural society is land and agricultural produce.

- S of a primitive society is in the land and produce.
- S^p of a primitive society is cultivation of the land.
- C^d of a primitive agricultural society is directly related to the amount of arable land and of produce.
- C^t of a primitive agricultural society is directly related to the cultivation of the land and harvesting and preservation of produce.

- S^{o+o} in a primitive agricultural society lies in the ownership of land and produce.
- EP in a primitive agricultural society lies in the ownership of land and of produce.
- PP in a primitive agricultural society lies in the ownership of land and of produce.

The instructor then presents the secondary group of formulæ which represent these relationships and introduces such further material as he wishes to present, such topics as religion, priesthood, private property, political and social organization, etc.

The use of these symbols and formulæ immediately interests the students, their curiosity is aroused, the problem solving motivation is introduced in attempting to interpret these abbreviations. The students see social relationships more clearly through these symbols and formulæ. Not only are the students learning words and terms and the given subject matter, but they are learning to see relationships. Furthermore the method provokes thinking which fosters and quickens the learning process. The students are using their eyes and ears, and their hands; they are vocally responding and are engaged in thinking; all of which makes for real learning.

Coöperative Map Projects

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A professor recently raised the question in his classes: "Are maps the exclusive tools of the history and geography teacher?" The teacher of languages, literature, shop, etc., will constantly ask himself in his teaching: "Where can I secure a map at little cost which will help my pupils gain a better idea of what I am teaching?" The geography teacher who feels it the duty of his field to help give more than an understanding of the world and its people will say: "Of what use can my subject be to teachers and pupils in my system?"

The answer to the first question proposed is: "The map is no one field's property." It can be used to advantage by any class or teacher where it is needed. The day of seeing maps only in the history and geography rooms is past. The answer to all the teachers' problems stated above was partially solved recently in one school through a series of pupil projects.

The work was organized in the following manner:

1. The economic geography teacher posted a notice on the faculty bulletin board that his classes wished to do some work of use to other teachers who needed maps. Teachers were asked to state how many maps they might need, and what topic they wished the map to be.

2. The teachers having indicated their wants on the announcement, a pupil was sent to all teachers in the school for a final check. This was necessary so that no teacher, when he saw others having good maps made for them, would feel slighted. After all wants were checked, we were ready to compute costs.

3. The materials needed were beaver board, wood for corners of the completed map, screws, paints, brushes, ink, pens, wire and hangers for hanging.

4. Then came assignment of maps to pupils. Since maps were from two feet square to four feet by seven it was necessary that more than one pupil volunteer to do the work. A maximum of three pupils was allowed to solve each map problem. This

allowed for sharing the various tasks involved in making the map. It also allowed for girls and boys to carry on the work where others left off if in different periods of classes.

5. The steps in making a map were as follows:

(a) Pupils volunteered because of special interests. For example the girls who volunteered to do the map of the "Journeys of Evangeline," did so because they wanted to learn a little more about this great poem. The pupils making the maps of France for the French teacher were not successful French students, but were anxious to learn more about making a "French" map since they had studied in economic geography the land of France.

(b) Having volunteered, the pupils had a conference with teachers for whom they were making maps. In this conference the teacher outlined his desires, mentioning where he thought the pupils might find small maps from which to copy and enlarge. He also gave possible dimensions of the map to be made. The pupils had to proportion their product to fit into his demands. Where foreign language names were to be used, such as in Latin and French, the teacher also taught the pupils the fundamentals of pronunciation and spelling of these words. Color scheme and details of cartography were left to the initiative of the pupil committee.

(c) After preliminary suggestions pupils then made an intensive study or research of materials to be placed on map. In some instances, as in the case of the map of the "Journeys of Evangeline," "Forest Products," "English Literature Map," etc., this was no idle gesture. Those committees whose research was not sufficient found very soon they were faced with problems of presentation which could be solved only through more thorough work.

(d) While research was being done one member was making an outline on a large piece of paper, or small sheets pasted together, which could be used for tracing the approved map on to the beaver board. The beaver board and corners for map were cut to size in the wood shop by boys in the class.

(e) All maps were corrected for errors before being traced on the beaver board. Maps were first painted, then with wide drawing pens outlines were inked. The lettering of the map was the last job to be done. To eliminate possibility of incorrect spelling all labels were first made on paper, then traced on the map and inked.

(f) After the maps were completed and the pupils had signed their names to their product a corridor in the buildings was used for an exhibit of their work. No job was finished, however, until the map was delivered, after the exhibit, and hung on the wall for the teacher desiring it.

As a part of the final examination for the term pupils were asked a question in their test which in-

cluded the following points:

1. What was the exact title of your map?
2. What did your map show?
3. From what references did your committee secure its material for things shown on the map?
4. From what references did you secure the small outline which was enlarged?
5. How did you go about making your map?
6. What mistakes did you make which you found a waste of time or effort in planning work or making of the map itself?
7. What grade do you believe your map should receive as a finished product?
8. What did this project teach you concerning the significance of the subject involved?

Readers might be interested in a list of projects made and the departments for which they were made:

Map of English Literature	English
Map Journeys of Ulysses	English
Journey of Evangeline	English
Roman Empire of Hadrian	Latin
A Map of Ancient Rome	Latin
A Map of Ancient Italy	Latin
A Map of Modern Italy	Latin
Roman Empire of 1936	Latin
Ancient Greece and Roman Empire	Latin
Europe of 1815	History
The United States after the Treaties of 1818 and 1819	History
European Claims in North America (1763-1775)	History
United States During the Civil War	History
Territorial Growth of the United States	History
France its Products and Cities	French
Carte de France, Showing Physical Features, Rivers, Cities, and Neighboring Countries	French
Minerals of the United States by States	Geography
Forest Regions of the United States (with samples of woods along outside border of map)	Wood Shop
Physiographic Map of the United States	Geology

The advantages of the beaver board map to the pupil might be summarized as follows:

1. It teaches elementary principles of cartography.
2. It develops a spirit of coöperation with other departments.
3. The research involved is of such nature as to be within the limitations of the high school pupil.
4. It shows pupils one phase of the use of geography at least in his own school.
5. Beaver board maps are lasting displays on school walls, resulting in making a subconscious impression upon pupils regarding

data shown. They see these maps every day.

6. The beaver board map made by the pupils does *not* replace the excellent maps made by manufacturers. It does simplify data and allows for the use of many maps otherwise unobtainable.
7. Making these maps on a large scale provides a map of sufficient size to be seen from all parts of the room or in such durable form that pupils

may examine without danger of damage.

8. This last may seem trite, but pupils making these maps learn that the history map, the language map, the shop map, the geography map are one and the same. Man has only changed its divisions of political nature during the years, or discovered new ways to use Mother Earth's natural gifts.

Mechanic Arts High School Seniors Evaluate Their Courses in Social Science

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Last year, in St. Paul, a committee of social science teachers, composed for the most part of history teachers, campaigned to make obligatory, a full year's course in American history in the eleventh grade. The city course of study for high schools included at the time, the following electives in social science: two semesters in ancient history; two semesters in modern history; two semesters in world history; one semester in Latin American history; two semesters in sociology; one semester in economics; two semesters in home economics and home building; two semesters in geography, required of commercial students, elective to all other students. The only required courses in social science were one semester's work in American history and one semester's work in civics. By requiring a year's work in American history during the junior year, the courses in civics, sociology, and economics (totaling four semesters in all) would necessarily be crowded into the senior year. Juniors would no longer be able to elect civics, sociology, or economics. The work in sociology would be reduced to a single semester.

No one wishes to deny that history, if taught with the idea of showing how inventions make social changes and reshape cultures, is an invaluable subject. But has secondary school history evolved to that stage? Have our high school history teachers, especially those whose training dates back a quarter of a century or more, a social philosophy, which really helps a student to get his own bearing in the scheme of life today, enabling him to understand his relationship to society?

The committee, which favored the proposed

changes, submitted a questionnaire to all the social science teachers in order to get their reaction. A tabulation of the opinions of history teachers on the value of American history to the high school students, as compared with sociology, civics, and economics, seemed to me of doubtful worth, especially as few of the history teachers were versed in these newer social sciences. It would throw no new light on the actual worth of the subject to the student. One could forecast the result before the survey would be made. It would be a reflection of like-minded groups, who already had made up their minds.

To study the values from a student's viewpoint, seemed to me of greater significance. The calibre of our sociology students is such that their opinions should be worth something. One is safe in estimating that at least seventy per cent of them are in college preparatory courses. The majority of seniors on the honor roll are sociology students. For that matter, pupils of mediocre ability, and those who have been school problems, should be able to tell the subject which helped them the most. (The course has been recommended by the visiting teachers to many problem children who seemed to need some particular orientation.)

After much deliberation, a questionnaire to evaluate the courses taken, was worked out and placed in the hands of 360 graduating students. The sampling was done in all Twelve A English classes so as not to miss any of the graduating June seniors. In most cases the English teachers administered the questionnaire and returned the papers to the writer for tabulation. The following form was used:

STUDENT'S REACTION ON SOCIAL SCIENCES

Name Year Date

Put an "X" before the subjects in social science that you have studied.

....History 1World History 1American History
History 2World History 2Civics
History 3Geography 1Sociology
History 4Geography 2Economics
 Latin AmericanHome Economics 1
 HistoryHome Economics 2

From the social science studies that you have studied list in order of importance the subjects which benefited you.

1st 2nd 3rd
 4th 5th 6th

List the social science subjects in order that you feel benefited you least.

1st 2nd 3rd 4th

Would you like two semesters in American History? Yes.

..... No.

Would you like two semesters in American Democracy and Social Change? Yes. No.

Which subject gave you what you needed most?

Which subject, if any, would you omit?

Which subjects would you require? 1.

2. 3.

Do you believe History 1, 2, 3, and 4 could be covered to your satisfaction in two semesters in World History? Yes.

..... No.

Check with an "X" any of these subjects you would like to have offered in high school. Add any other.

.... Social Organization Human Geography
 Mental Hygiene Vocational Guidance
 American History II American Civilization
 American Democracy Family Problems
 and Social Change Economic History

Which social science subject helped you to understand yourself?

Which social science subject gave you a better understanding of society?

Which gave you a better understanding of life in general?

Will you go to college next year? Yes No

Do you plan to continue your training? Yes No

Do you plan to go to work? Yes No

What course did you take to prepare you for the job you want?

.....

TABLE I

NUMBER OF SOCIAL SCIENCE COURSES
TAKEN BY STUDENTS

Courses in semesters	Number of pupils	Per cent of 360 cases studied
2	3	0.84
3	7	1.94
4	12	3.33
5	13	3.61
6	64	17.75
7	78	21.63
8	70	19.45
9	42	11.66
10	41	11.40
11	15	4.17
12	8	2.21
13	4	1.11
	360	100.00

Conclusions: Table I reveals that a very small percentage of the pupils take only the two required social science courses. Ninety per cent of the students take six or more courses in the social science field.

TABLE II

NUMBER WHO TOOK EACH OF THE SOCIAL
SCIENCE SUBJECTS

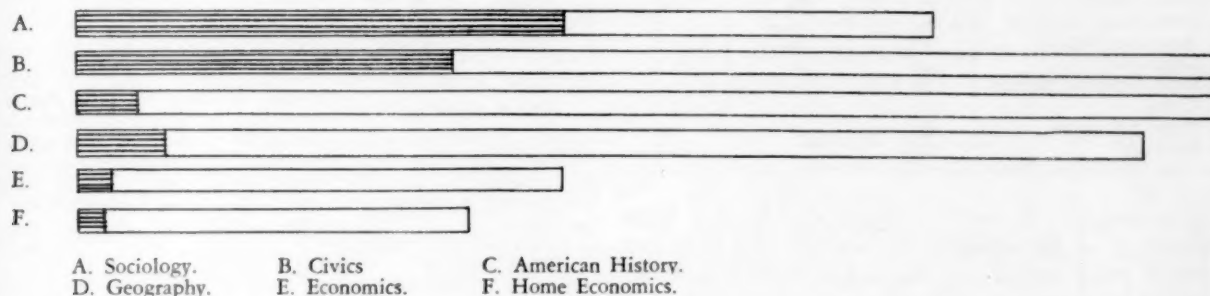
Subjects	Number who took course	Per cent of 360 cases studied	Number who rated subject in first place	Number who rated subject least important
American History	360	100	28	26
Civics	360	100	119	9
Modern History	294	81.7	0	222
Ancient History	241	67	0	220
Sociology	220	61.1	154	2
Geography 1	176	48.8	28	22
Geography 2	160	44.5	0	
Economics	153	42.5	11	24
World History 1	69	19.2	0	12
World History 2	53	14.7	0	
Home Economics 1	68	18.9	8	1
Home Economics 2	55	15.3		
Latin American History	26	7.2		4

Conclusions: While all of the students took American history, only 28 pupils rated the subject in first place. Few of these 28 pupils had taken any other social science subjects. Out of 360 students who took civics, 119 pupils rated the subject as first place. I found later that four out of five of these pupils had not experimented with any elective social science course. Sociology was the most popular elective social science, 220, or 61 per cent of the pupils studied having elected the course. 154 rated the course as being most valuable, and only two rated the subject as least valuable. (One of the two had been failed in the subject.)

TABLE III
MOST IMPORTANT SUBJECT ACCORDING TO
STUDENT CLASSIFICATION

Subject	No. of Cases	Rated First	%	Subject	No. of Cases	Rated First	%
Sociology	220	154	70.0	American History	360	19	5.3
Civics	360	119	33.0	Economics	153	11	7.2
Geography	336	28	8.3	Home Economics	123	8	6.5

TOTAL LENGTH OF BAR INDICATES NUMBER OF STUDENTS TAKING THE COURSE
SHADED PORTION INDICATES NUMBER RATING IT IN FIRST PLACE



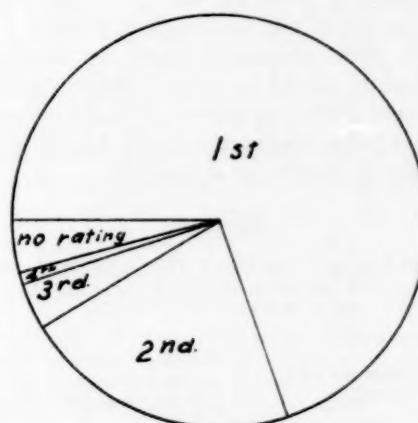
Conclusions: Sociology was rated as the most important social science by 154 out of 220 students who took the course. American history, taken by 360 students, was rated first by only 19 students, most of whom had taken only the required courses in social science. While 360 students had taken civics, and only 220 had taken sociology, the latter was classified in first place by 154 students, whereas only 119 rated civics in first place. Of the 119 students who rated civics as first place, 100 students had studied geography, 50 had studied economics and only 20 had studied sociology.

TABLE IV
RATING OF AMERICAN HISTORY BY 360 STUDENTS

Rating placement	Number of students	Percentage
First	19	5.3
Second	69	19.1
Third	70	19.4
Fourth	39	10.8
No rating	163	45.3
	360	100.00

Conclusions: Many of the pupils, who rated American history in first, second, or third place, had not taken electives in the non-historical social sciences. Nearly one-half of the American history students either placed no value on the subject or rated it below fourth place. The comparison of this table with Table V demonstrates that the students who had taken both American history and sociology overwhelmingly prefer sociology.

TABLE V



RATING OF SOCIOLOGY BY 220 STUDENTS

Place	Rating	%
1	154	70.0
2	47	21.4
3	8	3.6
4	2	0.9
no rating	9	4.1

Conclusions: A very high percentage who rated sociology as first place were college preparatory and honor roll students. Some of the nine students, who gave the subject no rating, didn't make a good grade in the subject, and in eight cases they were in classes taught by teachers with no particular training in sociology.

TABLE VI
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS RATING EACH
COURSE AS OF LEAST BENEFIT

Arranged according to rank	Number who took course	Number who rated the course of least benefit	Percentage of those who took course
1. History (Ancient and Modern)	265 (Ave.)	222 (Ave.)	83.8
2. World History	61	12	19.7
3. Economics	153	24	15.7
4. American History	360	26	7.2
5. Geography	346	22	6.4
6. Latin American History	26	1	3.9
7. Civics	360	9	2.5
8. Home Economics	62	1	1.6
9. Sociology	220	2	0.9

Conclusions: It seems evident that a very high percentage of the students do not feel that they get enough value out of ancient and modern history to warrant the continuance of the course as it is at present organized.

It also seems obvious that the students are interested in learning about America as a democracy but do not approve of the historical approach. It seems as though four semesters spent on ancient and modern history, could be covered more satisfactorily to the student in two semesters in world history. This would leave the sophomore year for American history or problems in American democracy.

TABLE VII
TABULATION OF ANSWERS TO QUESTION: WHICH
SUBJECTS SHOULD BE REQUIRED OF ALL
HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS?

Subjects listed according to rank	Number enrolled in course	Number that would require it	Percentage of number enrolled
1. Sociology	220	197	89.0
2. Civics	360	229	63.8
3. American History	360	145	40.3
4. Economics	153	77	50.3
5. Home Economics	61	34	55.7
6. Geography	165	36	22.0
7. Latin American History	26	8	31.0

When the students were asked to choose the subjects they would require, one must consider the social science experience. All sociology students had taken American history and civics, but not all civics and American history students had experienced work in sociology and the other social science courses.

It is indeed significant that so high a per cent of the students who had experienced a class in sociology, rated it in first place.

Social pressure probably was a factor in the high rating given American history. (It would be "unpatriotic" not to require American history.) This pressure would not operate at all in the case of soci-

ology. Possibly the high percentage indicating Latin American history could be explained on account of the pleasing personality of the teacher, plus her ability for making the course intensely interesting. She has traveled through these countries, and brings to the student a vivid description of the people with their background.

TABLE VIII
TABULATION OF ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION:
WHICH SUBJECT HELPED YOU TO
UNDERSTAND YOURSELF?

Listed according to rank	Number who took course	Number rating first place	Per cent of number who took course
Sociology	220	201	91.4
Home Economics	133	25	18.8
Civics	360	21	5.8
History	360	8	2.2
Geography 1-2	346	4	1.2

It is obvious that the students have a high regard for sociology when it comes to personal and social orientation. In almost every case the students who gave civics, history, and geography in answer to this question, had had no experience in any other social field. The nineteen sociology students who did not vote sociology in first place present some interesting facts. Ten of the students took the course from teachers with no preparation in the social field. Five had been failed, four were home economics students. The course in home economics covers some of the material, such as personality development, and home relationship, offered in Sociology I.

TABLE IX
TABULATION OF ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION:
WHICH SUBJECT HELPED YOU TO
UNDERSTAND SOCIETY?

Subject listed according to rank	Number who took course	Number who rated first place	Percentage
1. Sociology	220	177	80.5
2. Economics	153	35	22.4
3. Civics	360	67	18.6
4. Latin American History	26	1	3.8
5. History	360	13	3.6
6. Home Economics	133	1	0.8
7. Geography	346	1	0.3

In this study all sociology students had had civics and American history. Only fifteen of the civics pupils who rated civics first place had taken sociology. All students who rated sociology first place had taken the subject. Only five of the economics pupils who rated economics first place, had taken sociology. It would appear that the objectives established for the course are being achieved in the opinion of the students.

My survey, of course, is not conclusive evidence that high school students know what is good for their salvation. But it does indicate that sociology gives something that appeals to them. The subject has been taught in our high school for the past four years. During this time I have met scores of high school graduates placed in life situations where adjustments have not always been easy. Although I have not collected data in a systematic way, I have heard some interesting comments, ranging from general remarks such as, "Sociology was the best subject in high school," to more definite statements such as, "I have been able to adjust myself much more intelligently to disappointments." Several of our graduates, in the university and colleges, have chosen sociology as their majors. One very brilliant girl, who plans to be a journalist, remarked, "My high school sociology gave me the inspiration and understanding I needed to make what I write, vital. The foundation I got in high school has allowed me to enrich all my classes in social science at the university." Many former students come back to visit classes, recommend the subject to their friends, and call me on the telephone to discuss personal problems, social problems, and to ask advice on term papers that they are writing. Students continually bring in clippings, magazine articles, or ask advice.

Since sociology has been offered in our school, more than two thousand students have been in our classes. I feel these boys and girls have maintained a good social balance. So far as I know, only one boy

has affiliated himself definitely with a radical element.

Perhaps the value of sociology to high school students could best be summarized by a statement made by Miss Katherine Tschida, the visiting teacher of Mechanic Arts High School. She states:

When sociology classes are taught by teachers who not only have had courses in sociology, but have also had practical social work experience, the teaching of the subject becomes so vital that it proves a boon in the adjustment of the emotional and behavior problems of students.

Many students who have severe emotional conflicts, who would not seek out any one to help them, register for the course in the hope that they may find a solution for their own personal problems. This is revealed in papers, often when they do not know they are revealing themselves. Through tactful handling in the part of the instructor, the student gets help from the instructor and is brought to seek out the visiting teacher and the psychiatrist.

Many of the students with whom I, as a visiting teacher, have been working, have been aided tremendously towards solving their problems by taking the course. In a number of cases, I was able to withdraw completely and let the teacher help the student work out his problem.

It is indeed a fortunate school where the course in sociology is a practical one.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

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HIGH SCHOOLS—DEATH OR METAMORPHOSIS?

Professor Philip W. L. Cox of New York University has read the omens and finds "No" to be the probable answer to the question, "Must the High School Survive?" In a former generation, changing conditions outmoded the old Latin Grammar school and the academy, and now they bid fair to relegate the high school to the rubbish heap of worn-out institutions. Appropriately enough, Professor Cox's article appears in *The Educational Forum* (November 1937), organ of Kappa Delta Pi, national honor society in education.

In the rapidly changing scene since the World War, the high school seems to be losing its power of adaptation. Dr. Cox makes clear what the short-

comings of the high school are in this respect and asks whether the seed of the new school for youth is not germinating even now in one of the current youth movements. These movements are symptoms of the search for something that will serve the educational needs of our youth and our society better than the traditional high school. Professor Cox enumerates several of these needs which must be met by the high school if it would survive.

Professor Edmund deS. Brunner of Teachers College, Columbia University, writing in the same issue on "Social Trends and Education," agrees in many respects with Dr. Cox's diagnosis. Unless schoolmen learn better what the social trends are and in their light revise curriculums, the schools will fail

to meet present educational needs. His brief remarks about ways in which high school teachers of other subjects may use social science data are very suggestive. Both articles are worth discussing in conferences of teachers.

WHERE IS EDUCATION GOING?

Several of the questions raised by Professors Cox and Brunner were considered at the "Conference Commemorating the 100th Anniversary of the Birth of Francis W. Parker," held by the Progressive Education Association in Chicago (*Progressive Education*, December 1937). To the younger generation of teachers the name of Francis W. Parker is hardly known. His forward-looking spirit dominated the conference and is reflected in its subject, "Where Is Education Going?" Distinguished educators like Kilpatrick, Newlon, and Rugg took part in discussing the question, and they had much to say about it which will hold the attention of teachers of the social studies.

THE DISCUSSION METHOD

Discussion, the method of the forum, is being hailed as one of the best techniques for the classroom. Professor C. A. Harper of the Illinois State Normal University describes "The Discussion Method in Teaching the Social Studies" in *Educational Method* for November 1937. This plan, according to Professor Harper, combines in itself the best features of the unit method, the laboratory procedure, the contract plan, and the socialized recitation. It "more nearly approximates the best democratic procedure which society has developed for group co-operation. The idea is to develop the most logical and natural process by which a group of equals proceeds to accomplish some purpose. Planning is necessary, of course; there are various things to be talked over in large groups and in smaller committees; and there are things to be done. The main idea is that the children are to educate each other with the help of the best available materials and the guidance of a well-trained teacher. The research idea is a very essential part of the plan. There is a considerable emphasis upon finding the evidence and upon developing the skills of truth seeking and truth filtering. There is also a direct use of the classroom as a work shop, and due emphasis upon varied types of activity."

While discussion is very ancient, "there come distinctly new outcomes when we begin to think seriously of the techniques of discussion and how they contribute to citizenship and individual development." Professor Harper illustrates the possibilities of the method by describing how it was used in a high-school sophomore class in world history.

HOW TO INTERPRET EVENTS

There is always something to learn from anything Charles A. Beard says. In *Events* each month some of the most prominent of our historians survey world affairs and tell what they see. Dr. Beard is among the regular interpreters. In the issue for last December he discusses "The Interpretation of Events" in a way every teacher of history will want to think about. Dr. Beard is sure that the so-called best minds are no more successful in interpreting them than the so-called masses. "The state of Germany and Italy under the new despotism [does not] seem to be an immense improvement over the old order or the hit-and-miss system prevailing in the United States."

"It is the fashion in some quarters to refer to the wrecks of democracies and near-democracies scattered along the centuries of mankind's travail. . . . But it seldom occurs to critical conductors of historical tours to add the list of defunct monarchies, aristocracies, tyrannies, dictatorships and élites also scattered along the pathway of the centuries. . . . The only thing that seems certain to me is that *the people remain* amid the wreck of governments and the crash of systems. And, in my way of thinking, that fact is highly important for any informed judgment on government by discussion as distinguished from government by the man who thinks he knows and tells his head-waiter and waiters just what to do on every occasion."

No person, class, or group "possesses a monopoly of wisdom, virtue, and knowledge. . . . It is worth while for Americans to busy themselves with the study of current events, exercising in the operation such wits and industry as they can command. In the long run the outcome may be more amazing than amusing to critics who suppose that their habitat is Mount Olympus." Dr. Beard suggests several aids to the difficult study of the changing current of events: classification of events; tagging or finding out who actually "did or said what and who reports it"; the historical background out of which current events flow; the ideas which motivate personalities in the events; and interpreting events as likely to lead to strife and not peace, since war is as likely to occur as it is unlikely to bring a solution to the problem.

Dr. Beard gives a helping hand to the casual reader of the daily news, to the worried democrat, and to the teacher of youth bewildered by the volume of news poured out daily by the press, the radio, and the cinema.

ARE WE READY FOR ACADEMIC FREEDOM?

No term is in more constant need of Stuart Chase's "referents" than the word freedom. Superintendent H. H. Kirk of Fargo, North Dakota, helps teachers to distinguish between freedom of speech and license,

in his address on "Academic Freedom—Are We Ready for It?" (*School and Society*, December 11, 1937). He describes the difference between academic freedom and mere irresponsible talk and points out the obligations laid by academic freedom upon the teacher. His remarks were addressed primarily to high-school teachers, but they will be valuable for all teachers.

ASSOCIATION OF CIVICS TEACHERS

The Association of Civics Teachers of the City of New York, with headquarters at 911 Flatbush Avenue, Brooklyn, is now almost two years old. It seeks to keep its members abreast of developments in civic education and affairs, to study means for improving the civic education of children as well as conditions in the community, and "to develop professional leadership so that teachers of civics and government may more fully recognize their social and civic responsibilities and become a vital force in the community." Committees of the association have been appointed on visual aids, syllabus, and library. The liaison committee seeks "to establish favorable relations with organizations devoted to civic interest." As part of its work, "exchanges of mutual interest were effected with the New York State Department of Education, Office of Education, Washington, D.C., World Federation of Teachers, Association for Education in Citizenship, London, the Secretariat in Education of the League of Nations, the National Association of Student Officers, Chicago, and the Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers."

The association has held several conferences of its own and has sent representatives to meetings of the National Council of Social Studies, The Association of Student Council Officers, and the Human Relations Institute at Williamstown, Mass. It is developing a higher professional interest and pointing out to teachers and the public "opportunities for citizenship inherent in the study and application of civics." On the agenda of the association are such questions as: the appointment of "career youth" to city offices; citizenship training in the United States and in foreign countries; in-service training courses for teachers of civics; plans of the Department of Secondary Education, N.E.A. Motion Picture Committee for the introduction of films into classrooms; promotion of student government activities; participation in programs of professional organizations; participation in syllabus revision; and continued study of methods in the United States and abroad to improve citizenship training.

The organization and activities of this New York association may bring suggestions to similar associations in other communities.

THE NEGLECTED CITY

Dr. Karl Kekoni of Finland wrote a highly instructive article on "The Problem of the City" in the *Scientific Monthly* for December 1937. He reminds us that the city which historically has been the home of culture, "an agent of progress and civilization," was in ancient times all important. The city-state was the predominant state, and cities survived long after empires had passed away. But, he says, the modern state seems "to detach the social life in all its aspects from the city and to substitute for local aims and intentions the aspirations and policies of the national state." Today the citizen may take his business away from his city, may leave his city or speak against it, but he remains nevertheless a good citizen as long as he is a loyal upholder of the state.

Dr. Kekoni sketches the rôle of cities in history and compares the English, German, and American cities of recent times. In former days the city was the agent of culture, but in western civilization today it has become largely industrial in purpose. "The connection between municipal progress and industrial expansion seems so close in America that the problem of the city almost looks like a special problem of economics," although in reality it is far more than that.

Cities nowadays do not teach citizenship to its members, as the Athenians did. "It is not generally realized that true progress and real culture mean inner growth, the unfolding of all the good and valuable capacities and qualities in every locality, community and individual, and not the imposition of an outer order and uniformity by the agency of a central government." What the future of the city will be, Dr. Kekoni does not predict. Modern inventions in communications render all predictions doubtful. His article at least helps one to see cities afresh, to appreciate better their contributions to man's advance, and to know better the changed status of the city now and the problems growing out of that change.

A REMARKABLE ANNIVERSARY NUMBER

The temptation is great to tell about everything in *The Survey Graphic* for December 1937, the twenty-fifth anniversary number. The following features, at least, invite the attention of students of the social studies. First is Stuart Chase's "Working With Nature." "One dips one's hand into the resources of any state in the Union to find" examples of disappearing resources. "To give an overall picture, we are informed by the National Resources Committee that at least one half of the original fertility of the American continent has disappeared through water and wind erosion, and mining the soil for crops. . . . What are we, or our children, going to swap for automobiles, washing machines, and electric ice boxes when we have nothing below our feet to

offer in exchange? When our fish and birds lie dead, our topsoil has run to the ocean, black drifts cover our barns, the pasture grass has been uprooted and destroyed, the rivers no longer run, and the forests are charred and rotted stumps?"

Earlier, Mr. Chase shows by examples "how these resources are locked together—copper, power, stream flow, grass, forest, soil. If one is tampered with, the whole equilibrium begins to shake." Later he says, "The hard study of geologists, ecologists, foresters, soil technicians, has disclosed many of the principles upon which [the earth] maintains its equilibrium. It is well for us and for our children to listen to what the scientists have found out and to aid rather than to upset that equilibrium. When all is said and done it is the vital things in our lives . . . [because] we are creatures of earth."

"The people of Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, have learned to hold their resource base without giving up the freedom of their citizens to come and go, buy and sell, vote and talk as they please. Only the freedom of killers to kill, and of earth destroyers to destroy, is checked." In this country a million men and women are already at work on phases of a conservation program, in CCC, PWA, WPA, TVA, and other national, state, local, and private organizations. But the work lacks coordination. Only the TVA has tackled a whole region. Senator Norris's bill (S. 2555), however, aims to apply the conservation program of TVA to the whole nation, in seven great regions.

Human resources are even more precious than physical resources. Dr. and Mrs. Douglass W. Orr, writing on "What 19,000 Doctors Could Tell Us," describe the British national health insurance system which is raising the health standard of the nation. Theirs is a first-hand account which high school pupils will enjoy and from which they will learn much. In January, Dr. and Mrs. Orr will continue their description, under the title, "The Workers Say Yes—and More."

Waldemar Kaempffert, well-known as editor and writer on scientific subjects, in "The Thrust of Invention," describes the trends in invention today and the dependence of scientific thinking upon democracy. His article will be an eye-opener for many high school pupils.

An even more stirring story is told by H. G. Wells in "Earth, Air and Mind." Because of the tremendous increase in communication, mobility, and the use of power, man "has become a new animal incredibly swift and strong—except in his head." We urgently need a "World Pax, before gathering disaster overwhelms us." Mr. Wells describes the forces which, in the midst of those which make for international disruption, are making for world peace—air communications and the common control of the air by

some kind of world authority. Such control there must be, for the "threat of aerial bombardment with explosives, incendiary bombs and poison gas at barely an hour's notice, is intolerable to human reason."

What the world needs are "a common federal protection of everyone in the world from private, sectarian or national violence, a common federal protection of the natural resources of the planet from national, class or individual appropriation, and a world system of money and credit." He concludes with comments on the rôle of education in helping to save civilization before chaos overwhelms it. "Our world knowledge apparatus is not up to our necessities. We are neither collecting, arranging nor digesting what knowledge we have at all adequately, and our schools, our instruments of distribution, are old-fashioned and ineffective."

This is the second of three articles by Mr. Wells, the third appearing in the January number and outlining "A Brain Organization for the Modern World."

Teachers will find considerable light shed on many national problems by Professor Walton H. Hamilton's description of "The Living Law." He shows how law is made in the courts, how it arises, crystallizes, and then is forced to change to meet new conditions. His comments upon the rôle of the Constitution are pertinent.

The pictorial presentation of "American Ups and Downs" from 1912 to 1937 is useful for the classroom. It covers business, immigration, illiteracy, automobile production, and the growth of cities.

The socialized recitation, the forum, and the discussion method recognize at least in part what Elton Mayo has to tell about "What Every Village Knows." What Mr. Mayo says about workers is even more applicable to the school room. A worker's dissatisfaction with his work, he says, is commonly due to the loss of social interests in the job. "In any situation where men work together the organization of the situation as relationship between persons will inevitably take priority over technical logic and over the immediate material interests of the individual." The village sewing-circle knows this, and makes a social function out of an activity which could be as efficiently carried out in the privacy of each individual's home. Industrial programs of efficiency production are likely to overlook the social interests of human beings and therefore fail to achieve the production goal. The teacher who with single mind works with subject-matter in the classroom as a technician in his laboratory works with chemicals, fails to achieve the goals of education because children will not respond as wholeheartedly as they do when social incentives are present. For human beings there is "a profound need to live anything continuous in life as a relationship with other persons."

Going back to the beginning of the quarter century of *The Survey Graphic*, Charles A. Beard remorselessly pillories the American system of property of that day, in his article called "The Turn of the Century." He pictures the evil social influences which were by-products of that system and condemns the application, under the conditions of our day, of the philosophy of nineteenth century individualism. Is there no parallel between the fact and fight over economic privilege today and the fact and fight over political privilege nearly two centuries ago?

MONOPOLY'S STRANGLEHOLD

Supplementing Dr. Beard's indictment is the account of "Monopoly's Stranglehold" in *Forum* for last December. It is contributed by Charles H. March, a member of the Federal Trade Commission. Call it what you will, Commissioner March says, the essence of the modern problem of civilization is "The new problem of monopoly which modern machinery, transportation, finance, and organization have brutally thrust forward." Some countries have tried to solve this problem with communism, others by civil war or by "'people's fronts'" or "'national'" governments or by fascism which gives monopoly dominance over government as well as industry. The enemy of democracy is not capitalism, whose essence is to preserve competition, but monopoly, whose essence is to suppress it. "Capitalism itself is the victim of monopoly."

Government ownership used to be condemned because free people would become employees dependent on a remote, impersonal state. Actually now employees have become bondsmen of a job with a giant monopoly no less impersonal and remote. About 95% of manufactured goods are made now by corporations, and in the retail trade, the last stand of small proprietors, nearly 25% of the business is in the hands of corporations. The same trend is observable in farming. Small corporations are being swallowed up by large ones, not because the big are efficient but rather because they use unfair and often illegal trade practices. Anti-trust laws have curbed the little fellows while hardly hindering the big ones. Mr. March points out some of the bad economic consequences of monopoly control.

UNITED STATES TAXES

The study of this subject in the December issue of *Fortune* will teach pupils much about the confusion of taxes in this country. Four major facts are discussed: (1) Most of the taxes do not go to the national government. (2) Under "'home rule,'" there is extensive overlapping of local taxing units. (3) State borders breed wasteful interstate tax conflicts. (4) State taxes cut in on federal revenue. Out

of twelve billion dollars taxes a year (1937), five billion dollars go to the national government, two and a half billion dollars go to state governments, and four and a half billion dollars go to 175,000 other tax-collecting units in this country.

This article is the first of two and gives a general survey of the whole tax system of the nation, showing sources of revenue and the defects of the system of collection, with some suggested remedies. Attention is centered more on the state and local situation, leaving to the presentation in January the subject of federal taxes. The many charts will be helpful to students. The writer makes it clear that the great taxation problems of this country are not national but spring from the tangle of state and local affairs.

THE DECLINE OF MAN

Such a fate is not impossible according to Ernest A. Hooton the eminent anthropologist of Harvard. In "An Anthropologist Looks at Doctors" (*Forum*, December 1937), Dr. Hooton urges the need for studying human biology and achieving "the physical and mental improvement of humanity as a whole." The present practice of saving every ailing human creature whom medical science can save may not in the long run be good for the race. Not that the ailing should be left to suffer and to die. But they should not be allowed to breed. Dr. Hooton presents a general thesis and not a course of practical procedure for immediate use. What is needed now, he believes, is something more positive. The medical profession should spend much attention on the well people, since by improving them the race is bettered. Doctors and hospitals now have long files of case histories of ill persons; they should collect similar histories of well persons, "a great mass of standardized and periodic and anthropological observations of adequate samples of the population in which each individual is studied from birth to death." Professor Hooton pictures the chief features of such an institute.

In connection with this article it is worth reading later in the same number Paul Popenoe's answer to the question, "Can We Afford Children?" Among other things he says, "The family that sends a child to the state (Cal.) university averages two living children. The family that sends a child to the state home for the feeble-minded averages five living children." He suggests a family wage in order to encourage the birth of children of good stock. There would be a basic wage which would increase with marriage and children, so that parenthood would not be punished by having to fit a fixed income to a growing family. In order to make it workable he proposes a state equalization pool from which wages would be drawn to supplement the basic pay given to each worker by his local employer. Mr. Popenoe proposes several ways to lift the economic burden and

encourage the bearing of children by the biologically better fitted.

The Congressional Digest

The December issue deals with "Compulsory Arbitration of Labor Disputes." It describes various government boards for settling disputes, past and present, the British Trade Disputes Act, some state acts, various current national laws and bills, and presents a pro and con discussion of the question, "Should Congress, by law, compel the arbitration of labor disputes?"

SOUTH AMERICA

In the December number of *Fortune* appears the first of a series of articles on South America, "South America I: The Continent." It is a land, says the editor, which we should understand but do not, and should be interested in but are not. The first article makes a general survey of South America, accompanied by a very interesting group of maps. In view of the German-Italian-Japanese drive for dominance in South America, as over against the Anglo-American, this series is timely.

BRAVE NEW WORLD

Every Monday night at 10:30 E.S.T. the Office of Education is presenting a series of twenty-six broadcasts on Latin-American civilization and culture, called "Brave New World." The series will close on April 25. The broadcasts for February, March, and April deal with Latin-American culture and current interests of the United States in Latin America. William Dow Boutwell, Director of the Educational Radio Project of the Office of Education, is in charge of the series.

ARE THE AMERICAS SAFE?

Genaro Arbaizo asks this question in *Current History* for December 1937. In the spread of fascism in South America he sees much of significance for the United States. The coup of President Vargas in Brazil last fall increases the importance of this question. South America offers an immense market, supplies of greatly needed materials, and a great field for investments. Her exportable wealth has been largely under Anglo-American control, as has the bulk of her foreign investment. Germany, Japan, and Italy now challenge that leadership. Not only are they seeking business, but they are ceaselessly propagandizing through the radio, lectures, the press, Latin-American fascist organizations, visitors, missions, and advisers. Moreover, in great countries like Brazil, large num-

bers of the residents are nationals from these other lands. Are the Americas safe?

A timely sidelight is thrown on the question, in the same issue of the magazine, by L. F. Gittler's exposé of the Nazi propaganda machine and the men who operate it ("Nazi Propaganda at Work").

NEWSPAPER BY RADIO

This possibility has been talked about for a long time and now it seems close to accomplishment. W. Carroll Munro tells of the development of "Newspaper by Radio" (*Current History*, December 1937), describing the recent improvements which are making facsimile transmission possible. A facsimile receiver, attached to an ordinary radio loudspeaker, receives the printed copy of news sent out by a broadcasting station. Such service very likely will be available in private homes this year, as an experiment. It seems certain that "the facsimile newspaper is a thing of today." For several years Professor Ogburn, among others, has been calling to the attention of schools the revolutionary implications in this kind of development.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION MEETING

The University of Pennsylvania, The Historical Society of Pennsylvania, and the American Philosophical Society played host to the American Historical Association and more than a dozen other societies meeting concurrently in Philadelphia, December 29-31, 1937. Professor William E. Lingelbach led in welcoming the group to Philadelphia at the very birthplace of the Constitution.

The Constitution supplied the keynote of the sessions in considering historical topics, and in debating current domestic and foreign issues. Prominent among the leaders at the meetings were Guy S. Ford, president of the American Historical Association, R. H. Bainton of Yale University, H. W. Schneider of Columbia University, Charles A. Beard, and many others. President Thomas S. Gates of the University of Pennsylvania spoke at the complimentary luncheon tendered by the university to the visitors on "The Possibilities of Philadelphia as a Center for Historical Research." Most of the meetings were held at the Bellevue-Stratford Hotel.

Among the societies meeting with the American Historical Association were the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, the Agricultural History Society, the American Society of Church History, the American Catholic Historical Association, the Medieval Academy of America, the Southern History Association, the National Council for the Social Studies, and many others.

FOREIGN LANGUAGES AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

The Modern Foreign Language Section of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction, meeting Tuesday afternoon, March 1, at the Chalfonte-Haddon Hall in Atlantic City, during the annual convention of the American Association of School Administrators, will be sponsored this year by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers and affiliated modern language associations jointly with the National Council for the Social Studies. It has been necessary to change the title of the section this year since the teachers of the ancient languages have established a separate section. It is also pointed out that the joint session sponsored this year by the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers and the National Council for the Social Studies is entirely separate from the all-day Saturday meeting regularly organized and conducted by the National Council for the Social Studies.

A directing committee has been named on which the joint sponsors are represented by two members each, and of which the chairman is the appointee of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, which originated the section. The members of the committee are:

C. C. Barnes, President, National Council for the Social Studies, Head of Social Studies Department, Detroit Public Schools and Wayne University.

R. O. Hughes, Assistant Director of Curriculum Research, Pittsburgh Public Schools.

B. Q. Morgan, Professor of German, Stanford University, California.

Roy E. Mosher, Supervisor of Modern Languages, State Education Department, Albany, New York.

Stephen L. Pitcher, *Chairman*, Supervisor of Foreign Languages, St. Louis Public Schools.

The central theme of the session will be "Educational Objectives Common to the Foreign Languages and the Social Studies." During the first hour papers will be read to present the point of view of each area and to furnish some practical suggestions for the discussion which will follow. Dr. Howard E. Wilson of the Harvard Graduate School of Education will represent the social studies and Dr. James B. Tharp of the Ohio State University will speak for the foreign languages.

The second hour will be given over to a panel discussion under the direction of a high school principal with three high school teachers from each of the above-mentioned areas as members. Two of these teachers will be S. P. McCutcheon, formerly a teacher of social studies at John Burroughs School, St. Louis, and Paul B. Diederich, formerly a teacher of foreign languages at University School, the Ohio State Uni-

versity, both now members of the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Experiment in Curriculum Revision of the Commission on Relation of Secondary School and College. The other members of the panel are yet to be chosen. A report of the session will be sent to the principal foreign language, social studies, and other educational periodicals.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO CONFERENCE ON BUSINESS EDUCATION

The Fifth Conference on Business Education, to be held June 30 and July 1, 1938, will continue to emphasize the social phases of business education in accordance with the plans for the series of conferences. The specific problem to be discussed this year is "Business as a Social Institution."

The first day of the conference will be devoted to interpretations and amplifications of the concept. That is, just what does "business as a social institution" mean to business and industry, to labor, to the layman, and to educators. In the morning session an authority in each of these fields will give evidence of the extent to which the concept—as interpreted—is functioning today; the extent to which it should function in a capitalistic democracy; and the ways in which business, labor, and the layman are striving to meet their respective responsibilities. The afternoon session will be devoted to the relative positions and responsibilities and obligations of government and vocational training agencies. The respective duties and obligations of government and business will be considered. Ways and means will be suggested for harmonizing the specialized services of different occupational groups with membership in any one group a matter of individual choice.

The second day will be devoted to the responsibilities of education for the development of integrated experiences for effective participation in business as a social institution. Procedures for overcoming the economic illiteracy and the inadequate social philosophy of teachers will be outlined. Learning situations and classroom procedures constructed for the purpose of developing the concept of business as a social institution on the elementary, secondary, and college levels will be presented for evaluation.

Each session will be followed by discussion, questions, and comments from those attending the Conference. Printed programs including the names of the speakers will be available in January, 1938. A special luncheon will be served on campus each day of the Conference. Reservations for living quarters may be made in advance with the University of Chicago Housing Bureau.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Hitler's Drive to the East. By F. Elwyn Jones. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1937. Pp. 130. \$1.00.

Germany: The Last Four Years. By "Germanicus," with an introduction by Sir Walter Layton. Boston and New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1937. Pp. 116. \$1.75.

These two brief volumes, the former presenting a summary of New Germany's *Drang nach Osten* and estimating its danger to the peace of Europe and the world, the latter a survey of the economic situation within Germany itself, written by a dozen anonymous German economists, are in a sense complementary to each other and serve to show the inside and outside developments of the same situation.

Germany: The Last Four Years, the substance of which appeared in a series of articles in the February number of *The Banker* (London), "attempts to give a picture of the economic and military consequences of National Socialism in Germany." Written, apparently, by a group of men important in Germany's military, financial, and industrial affairs, some of whom still hold high posts in their country, the book discusses the general financial state of Germany from 1933 to 1937, the position of the military machine, the expenditures on armament, foreign trade, banking, agriculture, newspapers, etc.

The task undertaken by the authors is not a simple one, considering the difficulties of acquiring accurate facts and statistics in a dictatorship. An attempt has been made to use official records. How successful this has been, is hard to tell; worth noting, however, is the fact that the statistics published by the German Institute of Business Research, in an answer to "Germanicus," is by no means successful in refuting the arguments set forth in the volume.

"Germanicus'" main thesis is that "the failure in the field of agriculture constitutes the worst setback for the Nazi aims of self sufficiency and 'Wehrwirtschaft.'" He concludes that Germany's leaders, having gambled with the livelihoods of Germany's people, are now prepared to gamble with their lives as well; that the main achievement of Nazi ministers is that they have created a considerable international "nuisance value."

Mr. Jones is rather more important for his concise, clear-cut summary of Germany's drive to the south-east, than for the presentation of any new facts. Examining the basis for that drive, he describes the methods by which German political and economic in-

fluence is being forced into the central European and Balkan nations. Mr. Jones foresees war; but it is by no means inevitable. His solution lies in a united Democratic Front. "This policy, and this policy alone, can save Europe from war . . . a war which it is at present escaping by chance only, and not by plan."

WILLIAM DIAMOND

Johns Hopkins University
Baltimore, Maryland

Primitive Religion: Its Nature and Origin. By Paul Radin. New York: The Viking Press, 1937. Pp. x, 322. \$3.50.

This book contains a philosophical rather than a scientific discussion of certain aspects of the religions of preliterate peoples, particularly the part played by the priest-thinkers (in contrast to the laity) in the formulation of such controversial beliefs as concern the supernatural, the soul, the concept of God, dieties and the like. Written by an anthropologist who seldom shares the more generally accepted views of his colleagues on any theoretical question, the volume is characterized by numerous provocative opinions, speculations, inductions and interpretations which are original with the author. A feature of all of Dr. Radin's theoretical discussions is his penetrating analysis and scathing denunciation of the positions taken by other theorists. From this point of view his discussion in Chapters 12 and 13, "Monolatry and Monotheism," and "The Soul: Its Nature and Destination" are the most interesting and stimulating parts of the book.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Boston under Military Rule, 1768-1769, as Revealed in a Journal of the Times. Compiled by Oliver Morton Dickerson. Boston: Chapman and Grimes. 1936. Pp. xiv, 137. \$4.00.

The journal of which this is a compilation was published serially in various colonial newspapers. It was the contemporary equivalent of modern press association dispatches from special correspondents at the scene of action. Like so much of systematic news release in our own time, it was a very shrewd and effective instrument of propaganda.

In an excellent introduction Mr. Dickerson points out the great but hitherto little appreciated importance of this "syndicated" journal as a basis for

unity of colonial opinion in support of Massachusetts. Even the modern reader must be on his guard to avoid being swept away by the detailed account of daily life in subjugated Boston. Hereafter mention of the "Journal of the Times" can hardly be omitted from any presentation of the preliminaries of the Revolution. But the thing is hardly less significant for the history of the American press and for the history of propaganda technique. It may well be read in connection with John C. Miller's *Sam Adams, Pioneer in Propaganda* (Boston, 1936), where the authorship is ascribed to Samuel Adams (p. 174).

DALLAS D. IRVINE

The National Archives
Washington, D.C.

The World of Hesiod, a Study of the Greek Middle Ages. By Andrew Robert Burn, New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1937. Pp. xv, 263. \$3.50.

This book is, in a sense, a continuation of the author's earlier *Minoans, Philistines and Greeks* (1930). For while the latter recounted the story of Greece from c. 1400 to 900 B.C., the present work is concerned with the following two centuries, the "pre-rationalistic" society of Greece during what has been called the Greek "Middle" or "Dark Ages,"

on which the brilliant and rational classical age ultimately rests. To understand the latter period of Ionian rationalism and Athenian culture, some knowledge of the society of nobles and peasants in the hard "Iron Age" of Hesiod is necessary, since the survival of many of its customs, institutions, and ideas constantly meet us in classical literature. In interest, however, the period lacks the glory of the Heroic and older Minoan Ages and also the brilliance of the Lyric Age which followed it.

The text is conveniently divided into a social and geographical section. The former and longer of the two (1-146) is largely anthropological in character, since little political history is available, while the remainder (147-252) surveys the Greek world just before the period of colonization. The earlier part includes chapters on the Mycenaean Legacy, which is shown to be one of ideas as well as of technique; the World of Hesiod, an analysis of the poet's picture of life in his Farmers' Year-Book; Psychology and Practice of Magic with its world-wide technique; Law, State and Family, an account of the aristocracies, land-tenure, inheritance laws, and the early powers of the father of the family; and a short one on Play—athletic meets and music.

In the latter section is the longest chapter of all (VI, 147-231) which surveys Greek society at the

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close of the period from the usual objective point of view of the historian, for it sketches political geography, ethnic origins, dialects, foreign influences, the alphabet, armor, politics, constitutional changes in the breakdown of monarchy—especially in Ionia, Aeolis, (Kyme) and Athens—law, anticipations of coinage, etc. The closing chapter on "Traders and Sea-Farers" discusses navigation in the Dark Ages, types of trade, exchange of luxuries, especially metal goods, importance of trade in stimulating colonization which, however, the author finds more agrarian than mercantile in origin, revolution in ship-building by replacing the long fifty-oared ship of burden (pentecoster) with biremes and triremes, probably inventions of the Phoenicians and first used in Greece by Corinth. The chapter ends with a brief account of Phoenician expansion over the Western Mediterranean—the founding of Gades, Utica, and Carthage—and ends with the widening of horizon disclosed by the Hesiodic poems on the eve of the Greek Renaissance which started in Ionia where "the first attempt to apply reason to all things" (151), began and which ushered in what Lecky called "the European epoch of the human mind." There is a brief chapter bibliography (253-256) and an index.

The work is systematically presented, well-documented and up-to-date in viewpoint, and may be said to be a splendid and reliable introduction to the great period of Greek history.

WALTER WOODBURN HYDE

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Our Racial and National Minorities. Edited by Francis J. Brown and Joseph Slabey Roucek. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1937. Pp. xxi, 877. \$5.00.

This important volume, the work of forty-one contributors, is a compendium of sixty articles on problems associated with the various racial and national minorities in the United States. Several chapters are devoted to the problems of acculturation in general, both from the points of view of the American nation in assimilating minority groups and of the immigrants who are adjusting themselves to American life and culture. The major part of the book, however, is confined to treatment of the problems of specific minority groups. Separate chapters are devoted to the Indian and the Negro and articles of varying length are concerned with the immigrants from each European nation and from the more important Asiatic countries. For each group the circumstances which contributed to migration, the history of movement and adjustment in the United States, the present stage of acculturation of first and second generations, the contributions made to American industry, arts, politics, etc., are either discussed

in detail or summarized in interesting fashion. Teachers who are concerned with either practical or academic questions of Americanization will find this book indispensable to their needs. The value of the volume is further enhanced by an excellent selected bibliography of sixty-seven pages and an index of twenty-nine pages with cross references.

D. S. DAVIDSON

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

I Find My Vocation. By Harry D. Kitson. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1937. Revised Edition. Pp. 227. Illustrated. \$1.40.

American teachers of vocational education can take heart from Dr. Kitson's exhaustive survey of occupational opportunities. Despite the wails of our critics, that occupational guidance is unreal, we seem to find a greater emphasis on and trend in vocational preparation.

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The good binding, clear type, coherent introduction, fine illustrations, and complete index round out this valuable work.

IRWIN A. ECKHAUSER

Washington Junior High School
Mount Vernon, New York

A Survey of Civilization. By Albert Sheppard and Noel Davis Godfrey. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1937. Part I—to 1300. Pp. vi, 307. \$1.00. Part II—since 1300. Pp. vi, 397. \$1.20.

Professors Sheppard and Godfrey belong to that growing company of teachers who are experimenting with the college freshman course, and out of their experience with it they offer these syllabi "to meet the demand for a guide for the new type general history and orientation course." The volumes, in paper covers, contain outlines, bibliographies, maps, chronological tables, indexes, and suggestions about methods of study. For each of the sixty-eight chapters into which the *Survey* is divided the authors provide an introduction which lays down the lines for the study of the subject.

The work is designed to be "a frame of reference" broad enough in scope to satisfy the requirements of instructors in a majority of cases, without making it impossible for them to use their own ideas about such a course. Political developments are

given in broad outline and form the framework within which to study the cultural expressions of a people. Many will like the fact that the period of ancient history is not skimmed in favor of the medieval, and that half of Part II is devoted to the period since Napoleon and a quarter to the period since the World War.

MORRIS WOLF

Girard College
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Business Economic Problems. By H. G. Shields and W. Harmon Wilson. Cincinnati: The Southwestern Publishing Company, 1937. Revised Edition. Pp. ix, 713. Illustrated. \$1.84.

This book is written for secondary school students regardless of curriculum differentiation. It is decidedly on the practical side. Abstract economic theory and principles give way to the individual's need for practical economic information, understanding, and appreciation essential to the wise use of business goods and business services. Interesting style, appropriate teaching devices, and chosen visual materials make it a most teachable book.

W. H. WYTHES

Woodrow Wilson High School
Camden, New Jersey

BOOK NOTES

Everyday Things in American Life, 1607-1776, by William Chauncy Langdon (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. xx, 353. Illustrated. \$3.00), is a well-written and interesting account of household affairs and industries of the Colonial period. In a clear style the author presents his story of how home-building began in America, what the first settlers wore, what furniture they used, what they ate, what means of transportation they worked out, and what their amusements were. The contributions of the English, German, Scotch-Irish and other peoples to an American culture are woven into the book. The development of early American handicrafts and industries, including the production of furniture, pewter dishes, silverware and glass, as well as the manufacture of iron and the building of ships are given an important place in the survey of the period. Agriculture and the fisheries also receive due attention. The last chapter treats Colonial towns. The everyday life of this period of American history is re-created with charm and simplicity. The many excellent illustrations increase the reality and vitality of the story.

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a single volume a number of essays which they have dedicated to him: *The Marcus W. Jernegan Essays in American Historiography*, edited by William T. Hutchinson (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. x, 417. Frontispiece. \$4.00). The studies, taken together are not intended to furnish a comprehensive survey of American historiography, but they deal with scholars whose work is finished and who directed their research mainly toward United States history prior to the close of the Civil War. Twenty-one historians—"representatives of several of the leading types of historians"—are presented: George Bancroft, Richard Hildreth, Francis Parkman, Hermann E. von Holst, James Schouler, Woodrow Wilson, John B. McMaster, John Fiske, James F. Rhodes, Henry Adams, Alfred T. Mahan, Theodore Roosevelt, Frederick J. Turner, Herbert L. Osgood, Edward Channing, George L. Beer, Clarence W. Alvord, Claude H. Van Tyne, Ulrich B. Phillips, Albert J. Beveridge, and Vernon L. Parrington. Unity has been achieved to a great degree and the essays on the whole measure up to a high degree of scholarship. The work is a contribution to American historiography.

At the present time much attention is being given to the place of applied science in our civilization. A book that treats the economic and social aspects of scientific discovery from about the time of Charles II to about the time of Queen Anne has recently appeared: G. N. Clark, *Science and Social Welfare in the Age of Newton* (New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. 159. \$2.50). A concrete picture is given of this period which may "be called the age of Newton, for Newton was the greatest figure in the last and most brilliant phase of the scientific movement which began long before his time and reached its highest activity in the late seventeenth century." Science and technology, the economic incentives to invention, social and economic aspects of science, social control of technological improvement, and social science are presented. The work is written in a scholarly manner and is well documented.

Among the many books that have appeared on different aspects of the Constitution during the past year or two, a recent one, *Through the Years with Our Constitution*, by Henry W. Elson (Boston: The Stratford Company, 1937. Pp. iii, 220. \$1.50) must be included. This little volume is a condensed account of the constitutional progress of the country, with a brief summary of the important Supreme Court decisions, especially those of John Marshall. The author places some stress on what he considers the defects of the Constitution. The book is written in a simple style.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

National Defense. Prepared by The Study Commission on National Defense, of the National Committee on the Cause and Cure of War. The Woman's Press, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York. 30 cents.

An examination of the problem of national defense in the United States and elsewhere.

The Home in Transition. By Grace L. Elliot. The issue of *Social Action*, October 15, 1937. Council for Social Action, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York. 10 cents.

A discussion of how and why the modern family is changing, written in language simple enough to be understood by high school pupils.

Economic Preparedness in China and Japan. American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 129 East 52nd Street, New York. 15 cents.

An analysis of both Chinese and Japanese ability to secure supplies for their armed forces and civilian population during wartime, to transport men and materials, to finance supplies and transport, and to organize the whole process for maximum efficiency, including an examination of national morale in time of war.

1000 and One. Thirteenth annual edition of non-theatrical films. Published by *The Education Screen*, 64 East Lake Street, Chicago. 75 cents. To subscribers of *The Educational Screen*, 25 cents.

A list of films of various kinds, useful to schools, churches and other educational agencies.

Liquidating the Palestine Mandate. By D. H. Popper. Foreign Policy Report, November 1, 1937. Foreign Policy Association, Inc., 8 West 40th Street, New York. 25 cents.

A study of the problem, an evaluation of the proposed solution of the Royal Commission, and an examination of alternatives to partition.

America and the Far Eastern War. By William W. Lockwood, Jr. American Council, Institute of Pacific Relations, 129 East 52nd Street, New York. 10 cents.

An analysis of the situation.

The Significance to the World of the Conflict in the Far East. By W. W. Willoughby. Chinese Cultural Society, 5 East 57th Street, New York.

A discussion of the Sino-Japanese War.

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Taxation. Number 2. Prepared by N. S. Holland and Lewis B. Cooper. Section of Superintendence, Texas State Teachers Association, 410 East Weatherford, Fort Worth, Texas. 50 cents.

The twelfth annual report.

Collective Security and Peaceful Change. By Pitman B. Potter. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 25 cents.

The relations of order and progress in international society.

Minimum Fair Wage Law. Department of Labor and Industry, Harrisburg, Pa.

A graphic presentation of the purpose and operation of Pennsylvania's minimum fair wage law.

The Road to Power. By Joseph Stalin. International Publishers, New York. 5 cents.

An account of the early days of the Russian Revolution.

China Faces Japan. Edited by Arthur A. Young. Chinese Students Christian Association in North America, 347 Madison Avenue, New York. 35 cents.

Sixteen writers survey and analyze the present conflict.

A Short Tour through the United States and Canada, 1832. The journal of Lieutenant George Kirwan Carr. New York Public Library, New York. 20 cents.

Edited with notes, by Deoch Fulton.

New York's World's Fair, 1939. By Frank Monaghan. Encyclopædia Britannica, New York. 50 cents.

A survey of world's fairs of the past and of the coming New York fair.

Nineteen Hundred Thirty-Seven Factual History of the Federal Government. Congressional Intelligence, Inc., National Press Building, Washington, D.C. \$1.00.

A summary history and a digest of major legislation of the first session of the Seventy-fifth Congress.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

The Teacher of the Social Studies. By William C. Bagley and Thomas Alexander. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies, Part XIV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. xiv, 328. \$2.00.

The professional aspects of the selection and

training of teachers of the social sciences in the schools.

Methods of Instruction in the Social Studies. By Ernest Horn. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. Part XV. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. xiv, 523. \$2.50.

A study of methods of teaching in the schools and of the closely related problems of learning.

History of England. By George Macaulay Trevelyan. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1937. Pp. xxii, 752. Maps. \$4.00.

A new and enlarged edition with a chronological outline by William Huse Dunham, Jr.

Woodrow Wilson, Life and Letters. By Ray Stannard Baker. Vol. IV. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran and Company, 1937. Pp. ix, 543. Illustrated. \$5.00.

The fourth volume treats the period 1915-1917.

Social Learning for Youth in the Secondary School. By Donnal V. Smith. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1937. Pp. x, 292. \$1.60.

An experimental procedure regarding principles and objectives, subject matter, techniques, and devices.

Story of America. By Ralph Volney Harlow. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1937. Pp. xii, 812, xliii. Illustrated. \$2.20.

A new high school textbook.

School and Life. By M. E. Bennett and H. C. Hand. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1937. Pp. xiii, 185. Illustrated. \$1.24.

An aid to guidance.

The Constitution the Middle Way. By W. S. Salisbury and R. E. Cushman. Chicago: Newson and Company, 1937. Pp. 192. Illustrated. 80 cents.

A sketch of the original ideas concerning the Constitution, its growth through the years, and its present use.

Morocco as a French Economic Venture. By Melvin M. Knight. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1937. Pp. x, 244. \$2.25.

A study of open door imperialism.

International Aspects of German Racial Policies. By O. J. Janowsky and M. M. Fagen. New York: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. xxi, 266. \$2.00.

With a preface by James Brown Scott.